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ABSTRACT

The factors of camp environment are examined from the point of view of the psychologist and the camp director to determine relevant factors for study. Research methods now being utilized in the areas of staff selection, camper attitudes, site management, and administrative programming are discussed. The primary roles of the camp director are presented and include defining problems for the researcher and making the camp available for studies. The researcher's responsibilities include experimental design, interpretation of results, and utilization of interdisciplinary data. In conclusion, the potential role of the American Camping Association is discussed in terms of assistance in financing, coordination and stimulation of research, and dissemination of research findings. (BD)

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RESEARCH
RELATED TO CAMPING

PROCEEDINGS OF
WORKSHOP ON RESEARCH RELATED TO CAMPING
March 21-23, 1963

AMERICAN CAMPING ASSOCIATION
Bradford Woods, Martinsville, Indiana

RC004005

PREFACE

As far as is known, this workshop is the first national workshop to be held on research related to camping. Sponsored by the American Camping Association in order to focus upon the importance of research to camping and to provide an opportunity for leaders to discuss research as it relates to camping, the proceedings of the workshop should be helpful to directors and program directors of camps, to faculty and students in colleges and universities, and to others interested in research.

As can be seen in the Table of Contents, the proceedings contain the papers presented and the substance of discussions dealing with the main aspects considered at the workshop, "Impacting Forces of the Camp Environment" and "Research Technology".

Participation in the workshop was open to anyone interested. However, each region of the American Camping Association was requested to send official representatives to the workshop. A list of the participants appears in the back of the Proceedings.

Betty van der Smissen
Chairman
ACA Studies and Research Committee

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PHASE I: UNDERSTANDING THE FACTORS IN THE CAMP ENVIRONMENT

What Are the Major Impacting Forces of the Camp Environment?

Dr. Paul V. Gump
Associate Professsor of Psychology
University of Kansas

Hopefully no one believes that because your speaker has the temerity to organize a discussion around such a question, that he also has the answers to it. For some of us, the questions we can't answer are the most intriguing. Aside from this, there is also the very real issue of what areas of research are most pertinent to advancement of the camping enterprise and how such areas might be approached.

The position taken here is that camping is most basically and most pervasively an attempt to affect the behavior and experience of children by environmental manipulation. Therefore, the area of research most pertinent to camping is that which identifies and describes camp environments and the impact of these environments upon their child inhabitants. Just to make the issue sharper, some problems which are less related to the basic camping issues are the following: the relation of passivity to aggression in eneuritic campers, Rorshach responses of camper leaders and followers, responses of boys of low and high socio-economic status to the California F Scale. All of these may be interesting problems and camp may be well suited to their investigation but they do not hit at the core variables. The needed research deals with relationships which are camp-created, not simply occurring in or between persons who happen to be present at camp. When we offer camp, we offer an activity environment which differs in marked degree from the usual environments of our clientele. This environment is supposed to permit and to support certain outcomes. And if it doesn't support desired outcomes we should know about it and attempt to manipulate various environmental factors more effectively.

One Boy at Camp

In order to make some start to the question of major impacting forces -- and the results of these forces upon camper behavior -- a study of one boy in his camp and home milieu will be reported. This study involved two complete day records of Wally O'Neil from the time he got up in the morning until he went to bed at night. Five observers working in half-hour shifts recorded Wally's behavior in a complete, yet non-technical fashion. All observers were well-trained in the technique; and all were well acquainted with the subject. The resulting records were divided into units or episodes. Episodes are start-stop segments of behavior which show a consistency of motivation or goal throughout their occurrence. There were over 1000 episodes in each day; so, although we had information about only one nine-year-old boy in two milieus, we had a great deal of information about him. The general methodology employed is highly similar to that reported by Barker and Wright in their book Midwest and Its Children (1955). The present study is reported in full in a book edited by Dr. Barker entitled The Stream of Behavior to be published soon by Appleton-Century-Crofts (1963). The purpose of presenting a few highlights here is to show how some of the impacting variables of camp show measurable effects upon behavior. Later a sample of the effects of particular segments of camp upon the behavior of groups of boys will be reported.

One hope for camp is that it will yield adventure. Many of the constituents of camp deal with aspects of the adventure issue. Camps try to maintain variety in their places and activities. The woods and waterways are supposed to produce novelty and challenge; program devices such as overnight hikes are to be experiences in self and group testing; the camp legends regarding what happened before "on this very spot" are supposed to provide fantasy support to adventure. How, then, can we measure a romantic idea like adventure? We can start by asking what is implied by the term. Often, one aspect of adventure is becoming involved in a variety of different settings; another aspect is exploration of these settings and their parts; another aspect of adventure is an experience of strong emotionality -- the person who feels and acts "flat" is probably not having any adventure. We have some data bearing on these aspects of "adventure".

Another impacting force of camp deals with social interaction. Camp impinges upon this behavioral area in a number of different ways. First, camp offers different parent figures -- usually persons younger and, by role, more exclusively child-activity centered than the campers' parents. Secondly, children are usually grouped with age and sex peers, not with older or younger children as is the case at home with brothers and sisters. One of the long term hopes for such camp impingements would be some emancipation from parental dependency and some increase in security and satisfaction in dealing with one's peers. We do not have data on these long term issues; we do have data to show Wally's immediate social behavior and experience in response to these social impingements of camp.

The two areas of camp impact are really just samples; there are areas of dealing with environmental supports to increase in physical skills, to "character development," and so forth. However, these two areas are enough to provide a starting orientation to the data to follow. Of course, the major orientation might be "Did camp make any difference at all?" We are biased to think it must, but some people could argue that personality determines behavior and experience and that children remain pretty much the same no matter where they are. If a child is timid at home, he'll be timid at camp; if he was curious at home, he will be curious at camp. One hope for this presentation is that it will contribute some clarity to the issue of how personality and situation each contribute to behavior. It should be noted that to "believe in camp" is to believe that situational variables are crucial.

The procedure in reporting data will be to indicate the environmental forces or factors and the behavioral responses which seemed related; the significance of data from camp can be judged by comparing them to corresponding data from the home study.

Adventure and Settings:

The first impacting force dealt with adventure, one aspect of which we might call novelty. Other things being equal, a day's experience in a number of different kinds of settings probably has more support for adventurous feelings than one spent in fewer different kinds of settings.

In order to make the results clear we have to have some clarity on settings. A setting is a piece of the environment which has time and space boundaries, props or behavior objects, and people engaged in en masse behavior pertinent to that time-place-thing constellation. At camp, sessions in the craft shop are behavior settings; the council fire is a behavior setting, as is flag raising, a cabin cookout, a canoe trip, and so forth. In fact, it is possible to "map" a camp for an entire season in terms of its behavior settings. All the persons at camp and all their activity will occur in one behavior setting or another. With this conception, there are no areas of in-between settings and no areas of overlap. It is important to note that this concept of pieces of the environment is not the same as sheer physical pieces. Activity of persons is required if a setting is to exist. The empty craft shop is not then a setting; it is simply a building with some furniture, tools and materials. It becomes a setting at nine in the morning when campers and counselors begin to make lanyards, plaques, wallets and turtle catchers. And if, in case of rain, that craft shop were to be used for a cabin 7 cookout, this occasion is not crafts - but cabin 7 cookout. The general group activity determines the setting; places and props are usually quite pertinent to this activity, but these physical things by themselves do not make the setting. For shorthand we refer to settings as if they were places, but it is understood that they are really time-place-thing and en masse behavior constellations. Thus, when we refer to Indian Council Fire we refer to a place (the lower hollow in the woods), a time (8-8:45 p.m. on Wednesday night), things (fire, logs and rocks for sitting, headdresses, blankets and tom-toms), and behavior (story-telling and listening, initiation rituals, and circle dancing).

One final explanation; settings are always discrete or separate but not always dissimilar. An A & P grocery and a Kroger grocery store are discrete but similar. However, an A & P store and a Ford garage are dissimilar as well as discrete. Camp is supposed to provide a wide variety of settings for its children and the hope is that this variety will be utilized. Actually, a suburban neighborhood, such as Wally lived in, probably has even greater variety but it is not so accessible. Distance is only one problem; another is that many settings are closed to children unless they have some business in them. What actually happened with Wally on an ordinary day at camp and home? Table 1 lists the different kinds of behavior settings entered on the two days. (See table on next page). Note that the totals show 17 different varieties entered at camp, 6 at home. In terms of at least potential novelty of adventure, Wally was off to a good start at camp. We don't know yet how he responded to this variety; we do know he contacted it.

This consideration of adventure and settings leads naturally to another area of the camp impact. In their attempt to offer adventure as well as other values, camps try to be child-play centered. We talk about homes sometimes as being child-centered, but even the most loving and permissive parents do not really establish child-play centered homes and yards to the same extent as do camps. In homes, a great proportion of the places, props, and parental activity must be centered on food storage, preparation and consumption, on sleeping, on arenas for adult, as well as child, recreation. Although such interests must be taken care of at camp too, the proportion to the total camp can be much less. We might expect then that the pattern of play at camp would be different at camp than at home; specifically, that active play would be more prominent at camp; that settings like the hikes in the woods would encourage exploration; that water for swimming, trees for climbing, hilly paths, etc., would encourage "sportive" behavior, and so on.

TABLE 1. VARIETIES OF BEHAVIOR SETTINGS ENTERED BY WALLY AT CAMP AND AT HOME

Camp	Home
Cabin M indoors	Home, meals
Paths in camp	Home, indoors
Camp (boys') toilet	Home, outdoors
Washing machine and clothes line area	Home, bathroom
Flag ceremony	City streets and sidewalks
Main lodge, meals	Booster Park
Clean-up of crafts shop	
Woods	
Luke's dispensary, outside	
Luke's dispensary, clinic	
Swimming	
Cookout in woods	
Athletic field	
Crafts in craft shop	
Main lodge, free play	
Main lodge, outside	
Indian council fire	

Total number of settings

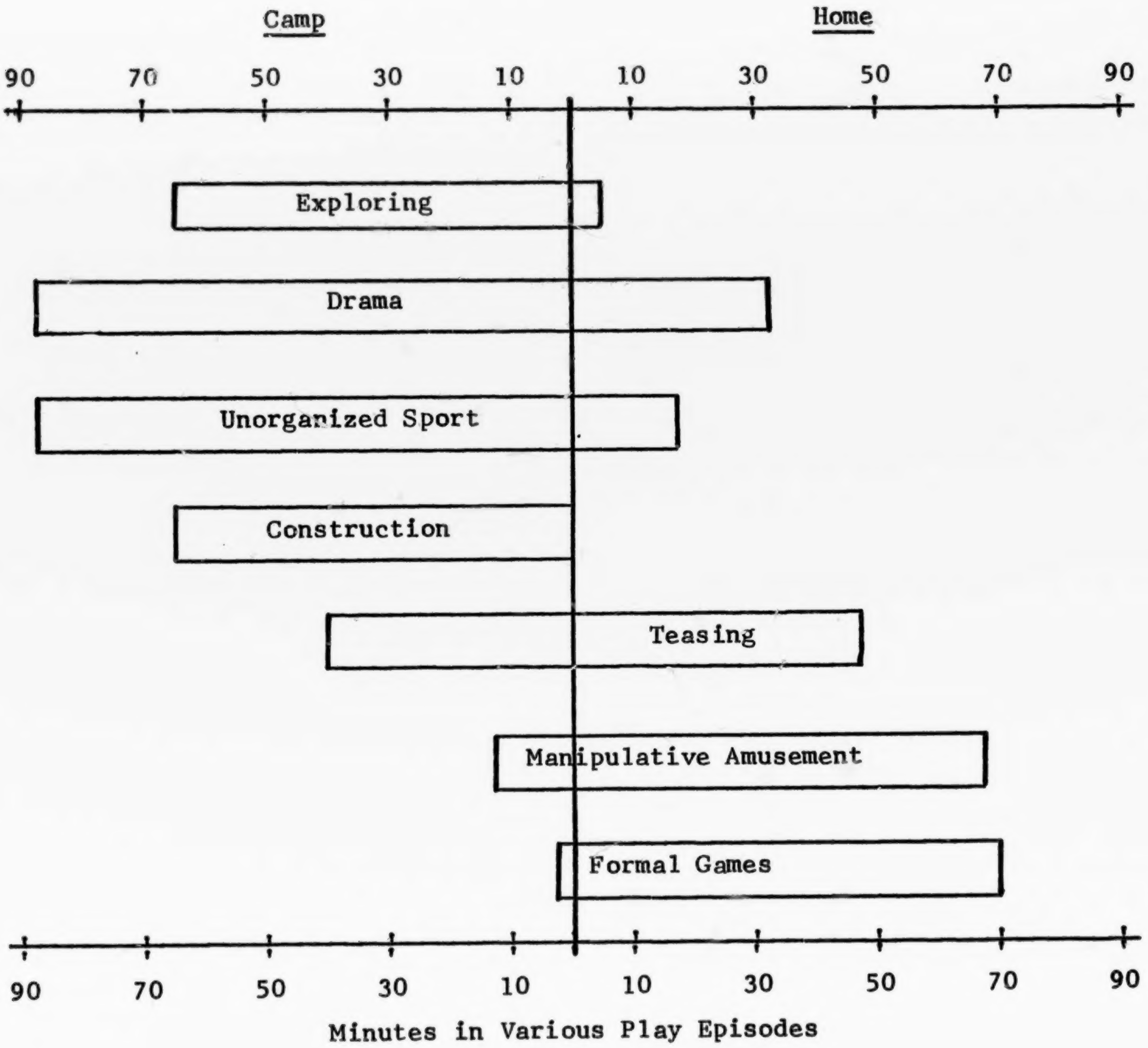
At camp - 17

At home - 6

It was possible to devise a code to describe the play patterns on the two days. Each of the 2000 episodes were judged regarding whether play occurred and, if it did occur, the particular pattern of play. It was found that episodes in active play at camp took up 35 per cent of the episode time, 27 per cent at home. In terms of time difference, Wally had an hour and forty-five minutes more active play episodes at camp than at home. Some category differences are given in Table 2. (See table on next page). Note that Exploration, a behavioral pattern connoting adventure, was of much more duration at camp. The differences in Drama are also related to adventure. Wally's dramatic play was not on the camp stage; it was a matter of "making like" a machine gunner in the tree hut, a cowboy on the barrel horse, a submarine in swims. It was as if adventure here were stimulated by camp opportunities and given a considerable assist by Wally's imagination. The differences in Unorganized

Sport are less directly related to adventure but they do seem related to the camp environment. This kind of behavior is a sort of "metoric free wheeling." The child enjoys large motor action for its own sake. Examples are: romping along and beside the paths, the maneuvering of the body in swims, swinging from tree limbs. In all of these cases the physical provisions seem obvious supports, but the social environment is also important; the development of a play pattern often follows this sequence: the physical environment invites, a few boys respond, other boys respond both to the physical invitation and to the social example.

TABLE 2. HOW CAMP AND HOME MILIEUS AFFECTED WALLY'S TIME IN VARIOUS ACTIVE PLAY EPISODES



For contrast, consider one play pattern which was of greater episode duration at home. Note that Manipulative Amusement was five times as frequent at home as at camp. This play pattern is a sort of fooling or toying with objects.

For example, Wally took a string and drew it about his throat, then pulled it over his knee. Such play is often of restless activity, which is trivial, yet intriguing enough to the child to justify calling it play. The great majority of these patterns came while Wally was watching the T.V. at home. It appeared that the T.V. watching was too inactive and Wally devised little side plays to create action. The cruciality of environmental supports to play behavior is obvious here. Camp had other things to do and no T.V. set; home had less to do but did contain a T.V. set.

Before leaving the issue of play, a suggestive complication in the data might be mentioned. The issue was raised regarding the extent to which "personality" or situation determines behavior. The play data can be analyzed in two ways; we can ask how many episodes are devoted to certain play patterns, or how many minutes were devoted to certain play patterns. You get different answers depending upon whether numbers of episodes or duration of episodes are used. In the comparisons used here, duration was the measure. For example, Wally had only two Construction episodes at Camp but both lasted a long time so Construction is prominent if duration is the measure, but not important if episode frequency is the measure. If number of episodes in each category is taken as a measure, there is considerable similarity between the two days; if duration of episodes is the measure, there is absolutely no similarity in pattern. Perhaps this contradition is not a confusion, but a helpful finding. For example, we can assume that the number of episodes represents the attempts made by a person to engage in certain activity; duration, however, represents the success in finding support for these attempts. For example, Wally started 22 Unorganized Sport episodes at camp and 20 at home. However, the camp episodes totalled 87 minutes but the home only 19 minutes. It may be that Wally's personality accounted for the similarity in number of attempts; whether these attempts yielded short or long episodes depended upon whether they were given environmental support.

The total results on play will show that the camp's provision of child-play centered settings was reflected in one camper's overt behavior. The total results show that Wally's play at camp was active, exploratory, fantasy-tinged, construction oriented and physically exhuberant. His play at home was passive, dallying and formally competitive.

Social Experience -- Camp's Provision of People:

Another set of camp's impacts stem from its offering of people. Camps offer counselors to children and children to one another. A camper's counselor is usually an unfamiliar adult who is younger than the child's parents and whose role includes helping the camper have a good time. What effects does this role have on the camper's relationship to his "new parent"? Is the social interaction much the same as at home, or is there a clear difference? One thing that surprised us in this area was the relative frequency of contact between Wally and his counselors as compared to contact between Wally and his parents. At camp Wally had 37 per cent of his social interactions with adults, at home 18 per cent. We don't know whether this finding is at all general. Wally was an oldest child and clearly an adult-dependent one. For him, the continued presence of a variety of adults at camp seemed a source of considerable satisfaction. Since camp does offer more accessible adults than the usual home-neighborhood setting, the finding that Wally had a large proportion of adult interaction is not entirely inconsistent with the camp ecology.

Another finding shows that the quality of Wally's adult relationship was different at camp. Much of a child-adult relationship is Parental: the child either seeks or is given such things as: direction, comfort, assistance, limitation and instruction. These sorts of actions we can call Parental whether they involve parents or counselors. In contrast, is the Peer, or comradely, interaction? Such interactions proceed as if both parties have equality; help or limitation is not involved; rather there is conversation, bantering and invitation to share play. The Peer action was taken by Wally toward camp adults 147 times - towards home adults 59 times. The camp adults showed Peer reactions to Wally 75 times, the home adults 30 times. It is pretty clear that the kind of adults the camp provided made a difference in the Wally-Adult interaction pattern. (Gump, P., and P. Schoggen, F. Redl. The Camp Milieu and its Immediate Effects. J. Soc. Issues 13:40-46, 1957.)

What about Wally's interaction with campers as opposed to home siblings and neighborhood children? The camp administration usually groups age and sex peers together. In more sophisticated camps there is even the attempt to group so that true social and physical power is not too dissimilar within a cabin group. At this camp Wally lived with a primary group in which there was supposed to be rough equality of power between cabinmates. At home, on the other hand, Wally was clearly more powerful than all of his siblings; as it happened, most of his neighborhood associates were older or tougher, or both. There are several ways in which this power-equality at camp and the inequality at home seemed reflected in actual social interaction. Social episodes can be coded in terms of the dominance, aggression, submission, and other modes shown by the subject to his associates or by the associate to the subject. We found, for example, that in camp where power equality was roughly similar, sharp and serious aggression was significantly more frequent than at home where power differences were much greater. It has been suggested that where power differences are small, struggles between persons are likely to be relatively intense and prolonged. Where power differences are greater, the inferior one is likely to submit, the superior one to limit his aggression. In camping, it has been a practice to seek power equality in grouping campers. This may not be necessary or even beneficial for some purposes. In any case, age-sex differences within a group may be expected to produce different social climates than age-sex similarities.

A second aspect of the relation of Wally to children deals with expressed power in social action. One way of testing this is to determine whether one party to an interaction shows dominance or aggression, and the other shows submission. Such a case would be a power discrepancy episode. We thought at first that between children of equal power there might be fewer of these than between children of unequal power. (This was before we had the data on serious aggression referred to above.) This expectation turned out to be somewhat in error. What sometimes occurred was ebb and flow of power discrepancies. That is, Wally and his associates "took turns" in power expression. Wally would dominante and his associate would submit; a bit later the associate would dominate and Wally would submit. Over the full day there would be quite a few power discrepancies, but at camp, associate for associate, these tended to balance out; at home, they did not. Perhaps this power discrepancy phenomenon is more understandable if you refer to Table 3.

TABLE 3. NUMBER OF EPISODES SHOWING POWER DISCREPANCIES BETWEEN WALLY AND MAJOR CHILD ASSOCIATES AT CAMP AND HOME

Camp				Home			
Associate	WPD	APD	Diff.	Associate	WPD	APD	Diff.
Ernest (best friend)	7	9	-2	Gene (sib. 7 yrs.)	12	4	+8
Lyle	1	2	-1	Maud (sib. 5 yrs.)	6	1	+5
Eddie	2	2	0	Hughie (sib. 2 yr.)	9	1	+8
Dexter (fat boy)	6	0	+6	Sid (neighborhood boss)	0	14	-14
Sammy (fat boy)	4	0	+4				
(these boys were Wally's cabin)				Warren (neighborhood child)	1	3	-2

WPD - Wally power dominance
APD - Associate power dominance

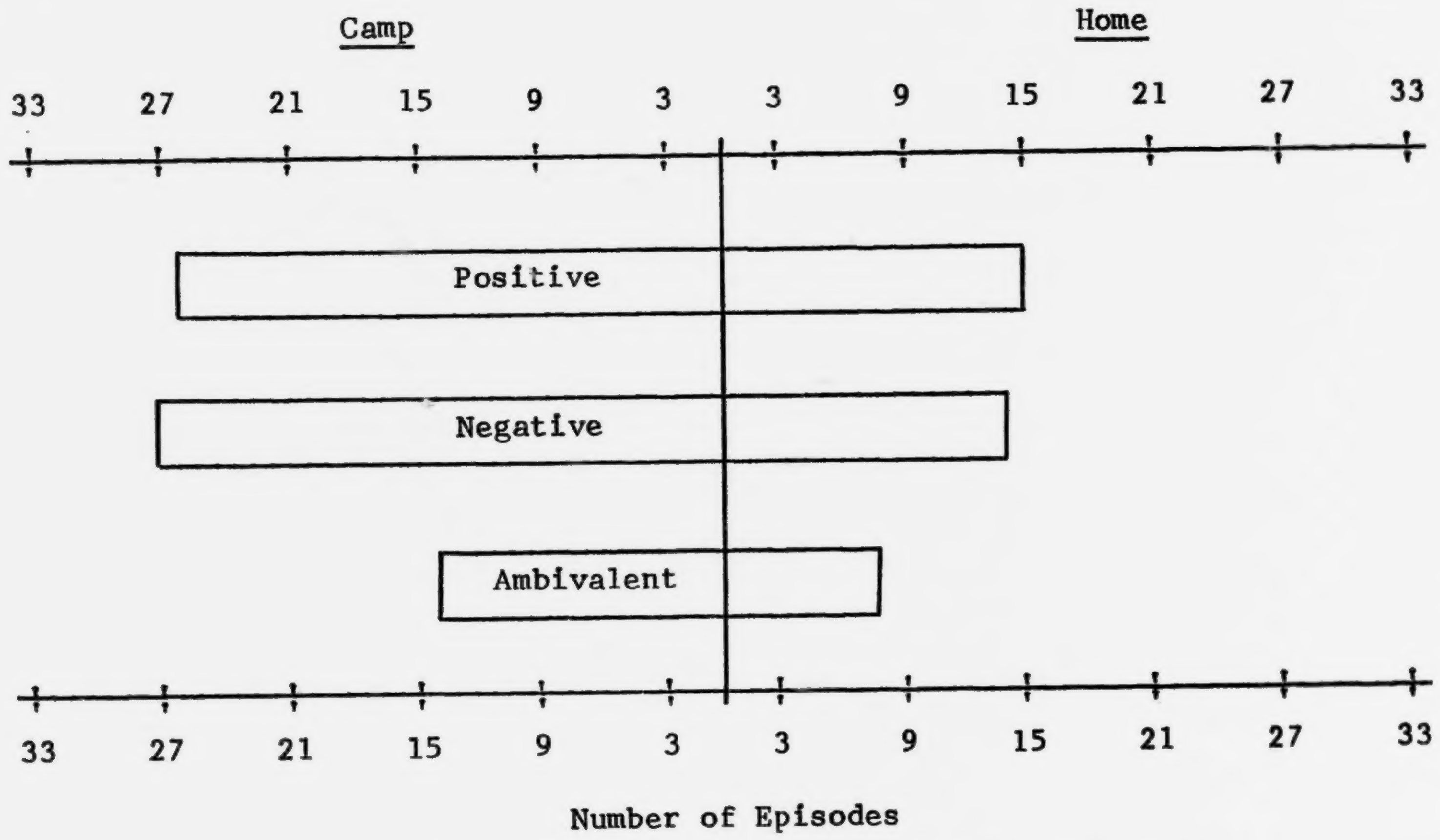
Table 3 data pertain to the most frequent associates in the two days. The columns marked WPD refer to power discrepancies in which Wally was dominant and the associate submissive; APD denotes the reverse; the associate dominated and Wally submitted. This taking turns in successful domination was most marked in the camp association with Ernest. Power discrepancies which did not cancel out did occur at camp - Wally dominated the fat boys but never submitted to them; power discrepancies and imbalances were much more frequent at home, however, note the extreme case of Sid, the neighborhood boss, to whom Wally submitted 14 times. There is a suggestion in these data that the relative power equality at camp resulted in more "give-and-take" interaction; at home it was "give-or-take."

Emotionality in the Camp Environment:

One final area of Wally's response to the camp and home milieu is that of emotionality. A very simple question is whether the camp made Wally happy - happier than he was at home. Here all 2000 episodes were coded for behavior signs (in connection with situational events) which would indicate positive, negative, neutral or ambivalent emotionality. Such signs would be verbal ejaculations, smiles, frowns, tears, etc. The great majority of the episodes on both days were neutral in emotional expression; this we interpret as a personality determined response. Wally was reported by counselors, and seen by us, as a somewhat guarded, tentative lad, both in action and in emotional expression. If one considers those somewhat infrequent cases of strong emotionality, what does one get? If you will refer to Table 4 on the next page, you will note that Wally at camp was happier a little more often, unhappy a little more often, and ambivalent a little more often. None of these differences are statistically significant. However, all of these strong emotionalities point in the same direction; life at camp stirred Wally more than life at home. Taken together, they are highly significant statistically. Earlier we referred to adventure;

if adventure means more joy, pain and mixed emotion, Wally experienced more adventure at camp.

TABLE 4. WAS WALLY HAPPIER AT CAMP? NUMBER OF EPISODES WHICH WERE STRONGLY POSITIVE, NEGATIVE AND AMBIVALENT



(Neutral or mild episodes in camp = 988; home = 980)

With specimen records, it is possible to return to the data and check on environmental supports to these emotional expressions. Twenty-one of the twenty-seven negative episodes at camp were related to those few but intense hostile interactions with cabin mates, usually the fat boys. The ambivalent reactions at camp were increased by Wally's reactions to bugs, swamps and decay in the woods. Toward such natural phenomena, Wally showed a kind of "horrible fascination." In his cleaned up suburban neighborhood, Wally contacted no such supports for this ambivalent disgust and attraction response. Positive emotionality at camp was related to the exploration, hunting and war games made possible by the woods. Several long and joyous episodes occurred in trying "acrobatic" stunts in swims. Neither of these kinds of fun found support in the home neighborhood environment.

A Framework for Conceptualization of the Camp Environment

When the question of the camp's impact is asked we are likely to list factors from various frames of reference: the architectural arrangements, the amount and kind of water and woods, the type of counselors, the nature of the program, the type of clientele, the camp ideals as expressed by leaders, and so forth.

The report just offered referred to environmental factors from a variety of levels. The potential for novel experience and active play was referred to the variety of and kind of behavior settings; a particular type of play, Manipulative Amusement, was seen as supported by a behavior object or prop (TV set) within a setting; the number and quality of social interactions was related to the type of persons provided by the environment; emotionality on the two days was related to the total camp input with special reference to persons and to qualities of particular settings. The study of Wally was frankly exploratory; we sought to develop hypotheses concerning the relation of environment to behavior and to develop methodology for investigation of such hypotheses. The shifting about from one environmental framework to another may be tolerated as a beginning; however, eventually studies must settle upon consistent schema for describing the environment.

What is needed is some level of conceptualization which stays constant and which is always relevant to the response of campers to their environment. I am going to suggest that the camp environment be conceptualized as a network of behavior settings; that an ongoing camp *is* its behavior settings; that everything that happens in camp happens within a behavior setting and that the quality of these settings is usually related to the activity and experience of campers within it. The supposition here is that these settings are coercive of behavior. The assumption is: if you modify or substitute settings you change the behavior and experience of persons within them. Evidence for this point of view is our next concern.

Coercivity of Settings and Campers:

Reports of investigation of these problems have been reported by Gump (5, 6), by Rausch (8), and by Barker (1). The studies I will cite here are meant to be illustrative of typical methodologies and findings, not to survey the field.

One efficient and controlled approach to setting impact involves taking data on the *same* children and adult leaders in two or more different settings. This establishes a natural control over individual differences and over stabilized group patterns. You can see the utility of such an arrangement. If we measure Cabin 1 reactions in setting A and Cabin 2 in setting B and differences emerge, we are left with two sources of explanation. These differences can be related either to the differences between persons, counselors and campers, in Cabin 1 versus Cabin 2, or to the differences in impact of setting A versus setting B. Such a study would be needlessly inconclusive.

In one study, specimen records were taken of the behavior of several boys in each of three different cabin groups. The behavior settings of interest were: Swims, Cookouts and Dining Hall. The behavioral response was the number of hostile acts which appeared in the records of these boys. Coding and tabulation are shown in Table 5 below. Numbers have been adapted in the table to take care of minor differences of time spent in settings.

TABLE 5. NUMBER OF AGGRESSIVE ACTS BY THE SAME BOYS IN THREE CAMP BEHAVIOR SETTINGS

Camper	Swim	Cookout	Dining Hall
A	0	11	58
B	0	34	54
C	6	18	24
D	10	11	97
E	9	26	28
F	12	78	25
G	7	15	32
H	13	33	64

A second phase of this investigation involves analysis of the records to infer setting factors or qualities which seem to underlie differences. By such analysis one hopes to understand the source of setting coercivity. Why, for example, are hostile acts less frequent in Swims? Our analysis suggested a number of sources but for purposes of illustration we can point to one apparent difference between the two settings. The major gratification material in Swims is water - water for falling into, hiding under, resting upon, slicing into, being caressed by, and so on. As this particular swim setting was managed, this water source of gratification was immediately available most of the time. There were, for example, no formal lessons on drills which might require campers to wait while others practiced or took instruction. The major gratification prop in Cookouts was food - food in generous amounts but still available only after considerable delay. On the typical Cookout there is the hike to the site, then fuel collection, then fire lighting (not always too successful), then cooking. All during this time the food is perceptually present but not available for consumption. Hungry bovs get restless; some attempt "raids" on the food basket; others angrily defend the food. A somewhat similar problem arises over fire; this potential for gratification is also perceptually available but not all boys who want to can share in [illegible] management. Tensions tend to build up over who will be "fire boss." The relative inaccessibility of the gratifications prop operates, then, with both food and fire. There are other setting supports to aggression at Cookouts. There is the aggressive fantasy stimulated by fire and sticks and direct handling of food; there are anxieties caused by bugs and darkness, anxieties which are sometimes expressed in aggressive behavior. The responses of persons to settings, like symptoms in neuroses, are "overdetermined". Several factors, working sometimes separately and independently, more often operating as a compelling pattern, contribute to the response to settings. For purposes of illustration, however, we may say that Swims are intrinsically immediate gratification settings while Cookouts involve delayed gratification. This difference along the dimension of immediacy of gratification seems to be one environmental support for the differences on Table 5.

What accounts for the difference between frequency of aggression in Cookouts versus Dining Hall? From our inspection of the records, it appeared that population crowding coupled with little opportunity for range of free movement operated here. Little troubles got to be big ones in the Dining Hall, partly because the setting required participants to stay close to one another even when they became mutually unattractive. Recent research in other areas to which we can merely point to now, indicates that the matter of human crowding or overpopulation per environmental unit, has very pronounced and pervasive effects upon behavior and experience of persons. (2, 7, 9).

Coercivity of Settings and Counselors:

Another important issue is that of settings and their effect upon counselors. A great deal of emphasis has been put on "human relation skills" in counselor selection. Without criticizing this effort, it can be pointed out that counselors operate both as managers of settings and as persons in direct social relation to children. Counselors are not in any sense immune to setting coercious; they cannot by assertion of some magic called "good attitudes" or "healthy personality" avoid the challenges produced by setting factors. For example, frequency of counselor interference with camper behavior was studied. Five different counselors of three different cabin groups in the swimming and cookout settings were investigated. Counselors interferred over four times as often in Cookout as in Swims. Counselors differed in how much they interferred and how much they changed interference rates, but they all markedly increased interferences when going from Swims to Cookouts. (6) It may be that we overestimate personality variables, or that we fail to see how these relate to settings. In this and in other camps we have been impressed with the good counselor's ability to understand settings and what they do; note that we did not say "understand the individual child" as is so fashionable today. A good counselor is inescapably a manager of settings for group activity. If he or she cannot manage this job effectively, his opportunity for helpful relationships to individual children disintegrates in the camper dissatisfactions and confusions engendered by negative setting experience.

Settings and Personality:

Is the position taken here, then, that personality of participants is irrelevant to how people behave in settings? You will note that some support for this radical and unpopular view exists on Table 5. There was no significant and steady difference between campers in amount of aggression displayed. Camper A, (with Camper B) has the least aggression of all campers in Swims and Cookouts but is third from the top in aggression at Dining Hall. Camper B ranks lowest (with A) in Swim, next to the highest in Cookouts and fifth in Dining

Hall, and so it goes. In these data, amount of aggression depended more on what the setting was than who the child was. Certainly, it is true that people show some consistency across settings. They do show consistency, but only some. A study by Rausch and others (8) involving a more sophisticated analysis than used in the Swim-Cookout-Dining Hall study is valuable in considering the issue. These investigators related such settings or sub-settings as games, arts and crafts, and bedtime snacks to the kind of social behavior shown by hyperaggressive and disturbed boys who were patients at National Institutes of Health's Clinical Center at Bethesda, Maryland. This project was under the direction of Dr. Fritz Redl. Behavior was recorded and later analyzed along two dimensions: friendly-hostile and dominating-submissive. Each boy was observed twice in each setting at both earlier and later treatment phases. Analysis showed three areas of findings:

1. Settings showed consistency across boys. For example, games produced relatively frequent hostile reactions for all boys; arts and crafts relatively infrequent hostile reactions.
2. Individual boys did show some consistency across settings. That is, if a boy were dominant and friendly in arts and crafts, he tended to be so in game activities. This tendency was statistically significant but not strong.
3. There was a marked interaction of settings with children. Another way of saying this is that the setting affects the child the same when he is in it on each of two different occasions. Or, people are particularly consistent within setting forces and personality forces. It is more powerful than that.

Since we have accepted that behavior is a function of the interaction of person and environment, it is important to consider what this might mean in terms of data. Table 6 (on the next page) contains a schematic representation of this truism if the data were superlatively clear-cut. In this display we imagine two settings, X and Y, and five boys, A through E. Each boy is measured on two occasions in each setting and given a mean score for each setting. The three areas of findings above are given visual representation by Table 6.

1. Setting determination. Average number of friendly responses rises from Setting X to Setting Y. (3.7 to 6.0).

   Settings show consistency across persons. Note that boys showed more friendliness in Setting Y; some increased markedly, others only minimally, but there is a significantly general increase related to setting change.

2. "Personality" determination. There is a trend for children low in friendliness in Setting X to be low in Setting Y also. D and E rank low in X and Y. B ranks high; A and C are exceptions. (r = .50).

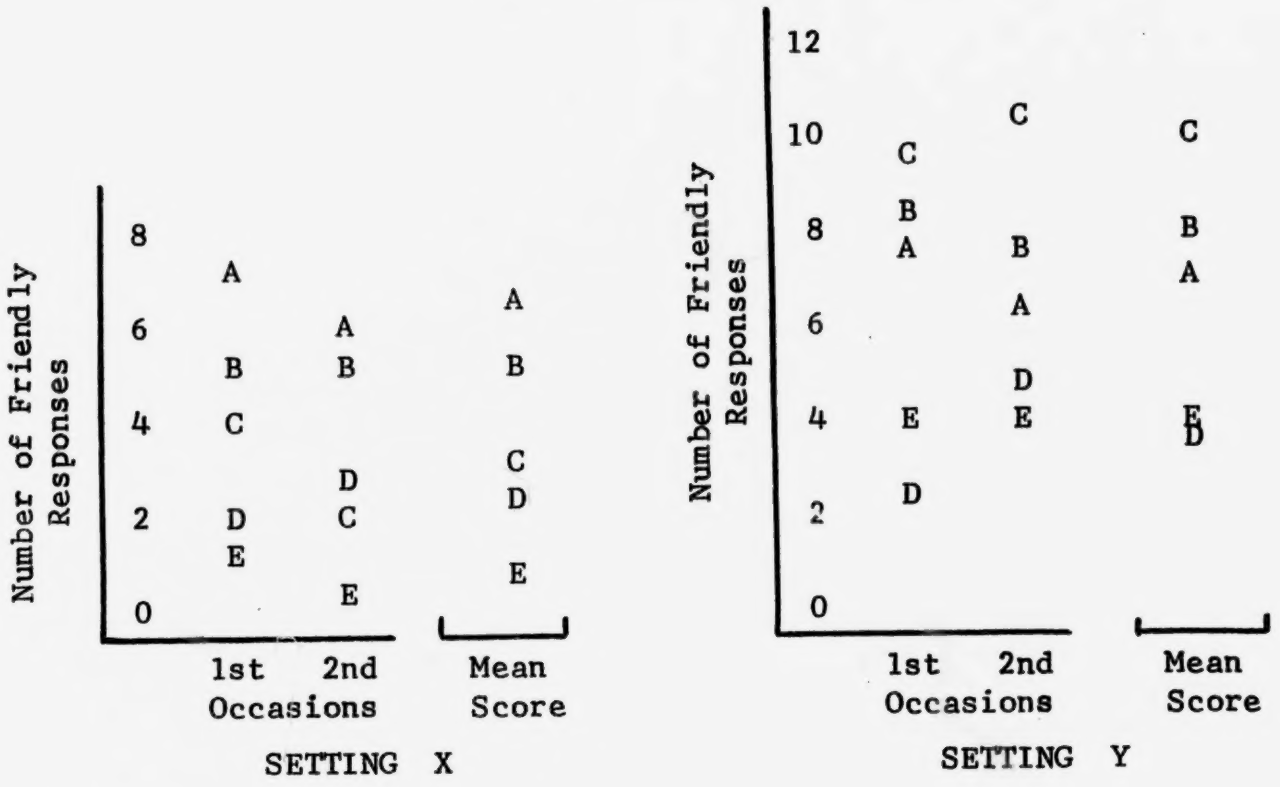
   There is some consistency of persons across settings. For this we compare the ranks in mean score in Setting X with ranks in mean score in Setting Y. Note that B is second in both settings, D and E are low in both settings and A and C are mild exceptions. The consistency of persons is far from complete but it exists.

3. Setting and personality determination. Within settings, children are markedly consistent; they usually rank the same on Occasion 1 as on Occasion 2. (r's = .90).

People are consistent within settings. The representation here is made by the two sets of Occasion scores. Within a setting a person maintains his rank quite well. On the first Occasion in Setting X, Camper A ranks highest in friendliness; on the second Occasion his score shifts but he is still highest; the same is true for B and E and almost true for C and D. A similar closeness of ranking for Occasion 1 and Occasion 2 obtains in Setting Y.

To summarize then, settings are found to be somewhat coercive of certain behavior variables for all or most of their inhabitants. On the other hand, both settings and persons show greatest consistency when behavior within settings is measured.

TABLE 6. REPRESENTATION (EXAGGERATED AND IMAGINARY) OF EFFECTS OF SETTING AND PERSONALITY UPON NUMBER OF FRIENDLY RESPONSES OF CHILDREN LABELLED A, B, C, D, E



Settings Networks as a Description of Total Camps:

It is now technologically possible to describe a total camp season as a pattern of behavior settings. Data on number, kind, and variety of settings can be obtained as well as data on the importance of specific settings in terms of extent to which they are utilized by camp inhabitants. One such study, unpublished, has been done by Maxine Schoggen. However, we are handicapped in interpreting results because of a lack of equivalent data from other camps for comparisons and interpretations. However, two different camps, as total environments, could be compared. Such an approach has been applied to high schools of large and small enrollments. (Barker, R.G., and P.V. Gump. Big School - Small School. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1964.) It was found, for example, that one school might be 65 times as large as another in population size, but only 8 times as large in terms of number of settings. This implies that the smaller school had less crowded settings. Subsequent research demonstrated that over- versus under-population of school settings was significantly related to the behavior and experience of student participants. Whether such a relationship obtains for camps is unknown. The size issue does bear on the question of how big, in terms of number of campers, or in terms of number of settings, a camp should be.

Settings and Their Qualities as Independent Variables

The preceding discussion on coercivity of settings illustrated some possibilities in this approach to the impact of camping. It may be useful to point to several additional considerations.

Measurement of Impact:

The techniques employed in the foregoing illustrations were expensive. There are less costly methods. Wright (9) was able to train laymen to observe and reliably record "for-the-other" and "against-the-other" social actions of children in their out-of-school activities. If an investigator suspects that an impact is particularly related to a certain aspect of behavior, he may employ critical incident methods. Also, it has been demonstrated (2) that young people are capable of talking about settings just as they are able to talk about people, themselves and other pieces of their experience. Data obtained in interviews about settings has been coded and successfully used to test hypotheses regarding setting impact.

Dimensionalization of Settings:

Each setting differs in some degree from every other setting. But to understand one institutional environment by studying the impact of each of its settings would be a Herculean task. Each setting is also like a number of other settings. For example, both Boat settings and Craft settings may involve activity delays because participants must take turns in using major props. In Boat settings, when rowing a boat, this prop may be the oars; in Craft settings, the use of a piece of equipment, such as a power saw. A certain similarity of impact of these two settings can thus be demonstrated.

There are other dimensions of settings which seem important in camp: range of free physical movement, amount of skill required to engage actively in the setting's essential action, extent of competition built into the setting's activities, and so on. When the effects of points on these environmental dimensions are discovered for a sample of settings, it is possible to predict similar impact results for similar settings.

Program Manipulation Within Settings:

Within limits, the activity and prop structures within settings can be shifted about without creating a new setting. This internal manipulation can yield interesting results. A Crafts setting became more popular and more gratifying to impulsive children when changes were made within the setting. Physical replicas of several possible projects were introduced at each session; these helped children both to choose their projects and execute plans for them.

Projects of play value were substituted for those of artistic merit. All projects and materials were developed so that they could be completed in one session. Such changes resulted in increased attendance, especially by boys who previously avoided arts and crafts, and in use of craft objects in various play activities outside the crafts session. It is recognized that certain possibilities relating to artistic creativity were probably lost by these changes. However, for our purpose this is beside the point; the issue is not what is a good setting, but good for what and for whom.

Counselor Skill and Setting Impact:

Anyone who has observed settings and the behavior within them becomes aware that they have potentialities for both positive and negative outcomes. A Boat setting, with its long periods of inaction for some participants in certain types of boating, has not only a potential for conversation intimacy between campers and counselor but also a potential for boredom and frustration. A good counselor does certain things to exploit the positive potential and does other things to circumvent or diminish the negative ones. For example, the good counselor may invite attention to water and shore sights along the way; he may stimulate conversation about home and school; to prevent frustration the good counselor may speed up taking turns at the oars, may provide toy boats, fish lines, etc. The point is that camp administration needs to know how to obtain such "good" behaviors. How may this be done? Some believe that we can develop selection programs which will result in excellent counselors; these elite persons, by intuition or intelligence will then handle such matters "naturally". The other possibility is that we can learn setting potentials and teach them and their manipulation to less than excellent counselors. By research, we can learn how to help relatively ordinary people do a better job.

Settings as Contextual Variables:

There are research problems which would not employ settings as independent variables. For example, we may wish to assess the effectiveness of a preseason counselor training session; we may define one aspect of success as a decrease in the number of direct counselor interferences with camper behavior. To make the study tight, we would have a non-trained or control group as well as a trained one. The investigation would require that the number or per cent of interference actions by non-trained counselors be compared with those by the trained counselors. Since we cannot afford observer coverage of all counselor-camper association, we will have to take a sample. We could simply require that each counselor be observed ten minutes every day; this is a time sample. However, enough is already known about settings to predict that the number of counselor interferences will vary according to the setting in which counselor and camper interact. If we observe the trained counselors in Dining Hall and the untrained in Swims, results may indicate that training makes counselor interference worse. It is clear that settings provide an influential context for the operation of other variables of interest. A sophisticated design for this study would require observation samples from settings in each of the major varieties offered by the camp. Furthermore, observation time per setting should be proportionate to how much that setting is used by campers and counselors. For example, Dining Hall which may be the most heavily used of all settings, should get proportionately more observation time than Moonlight Swims which occur infrequently. Such a design, controlling the contextual effect of settings, would be reasonably sensitive to training effects. It would also permit inferences about whether training was effective across all situations (i.e. settings) or restricted to a few situations. In other words, we could check training effects in general, and training effects in the context of Swim, Crafts, Cookouts, Flag Raising and other settings.

In Conclusion:

Research regarding impact of camp requires conceptualization of the camp as an environment and conceptualization of dependent or response variables such as camper behavior and camper change. All that goes on in camp goes on in one setting or another. Knowledge of settings is required if we wish to learn their impact; it is also required if we focus on nonsetting variables which must operate through settings.

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Discussion: What is a Behavior Setting?

What is meant by a "behavior setting"? To approach this question, another should be asked: "What is a camp?"

We all know what a camp is; yet, when we come to the level of specific description this shared knowing reveals a good deal of disagreement regarding emphases. In some descriptions, the physical aspects of camp site and facilities may be the most distinguishing features. In other accounts, the persons who live at camp may be seen as most fundamental. Finally, some descriptions of camp are statements of its activities.

One might argue that these differences are quite acceptable; after all, the kind of description one proposes should fit the purpose of the description and any one of the above emphases would be fitting for some kinds of problems. However, we believe that some descriptions are more adequately representative of reality than others. We propose that camp may be usefully and accurately represented as *a network of behavior settings operating across a camp season*. To communicate the sense of this statement it is necessary to clarify what is meant by the term *behavior setting*. The definition given by Barker and Wright (Barker, R.G. and H.F. Wright. *Midwest and its Children*. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson, 1955 @ p. 45.) is this:

> A behavior setting is a standing pattern of behavior and a part of the milieu which are synomorphic and in which the milieu is circumjacent to behavior.

If one will resist the shock effect produced by exotic words such as "synomorphic" or "circumjacent", it is possible to find this definition sensible and useful. The major elements can be discussed one at a time and then put back together to describe a particular setting.

Standing Pattern of Behavior:

In a camp, school or city one can observe much human behavior which is not individualistic. There are easily discerned patterns of behavior involved in commuting home from work, studying in the algebra class or participating at Indian Council Fire. These extra-individual behaviors help make up the affair or activity which is referred to as a behavior setting. There may be considerable variety of boys' behavior in a craft shop but there are the standard behaviors of supply procurement, of construction, of painting or weaving by which one may identify the craft activity. And when a boy is in a craft shop he is literally in a behavior context as well as *in* a physical facility. He is surrounded by stimuli from the *en masse* "crafting behavior" of his associates. So it can be seen that the term, *setting*, here refers not just to physical factors but to behavioral ones as well. In our terms, the *facility* craft shop, swimming pool, dining hall are like hulls or shells; behavior of any one person within these hulls is hard to predict; however, when standing patterns of behavior are added, these shells impinge more coercively upon persons. For any one individual, the setting -- appropriate behavior of other persons, is a strong guide for behavior.

Part of the Milieu:

Although en masse behavior of persons is a crucial constituent of settings, the milieu for this behavior is also fundamental in the behavior setting concept. It is clear that human affairs do not occur in limbo. The Red Bird Cabin Cookout took place at a particular time and place (Wednesday evening from 7 to 9 p.m. at Sunset Hill). Certain facilities and objects were also involved (hot dogs, relish, dirt, rocks, sticks, fire, etc.). The calm weather, the dimming sunlight, the pine smell in the air were all parts of the non-psychological milieu. Camp people are usually convinced that the milieu aspects of their behavior settings is highly important; that better camping experiences are possible if the site, facilities, supplies and climate are appropriate. If they did not believe this, they might try to run their program in a city motel.

Behavior and Milieu are Synomorphic:

One can notice a congruence or fit between the standard behavior and the milieu of behavior settings. Conditions of time, of space, of supplies and equipment will be synomorphic to the behavior of the setting. Settings which require sitting will have chairs; those which involve ball games will have some expanse for the ball to travel and often some enclosure or backstop to restrain the loose ball. The more efficiently developed the setting, the more fit or synomorphy between standard behavior at many swimming behavior settings. At the more developed setting, the life guard will be given an elevated chair so that he may see better. This raised position is a milieu factor which is synomorphic with the standard scanning behavior of the lifeguard role in the swimming behavior setting.

Milieu is Circumjacent to the Behavior:

The milieu of a behavior setting is often seen as "around" or embracing the behaviors in it. Thus, both time and space can be perceived as enclosing the activities which make up the behavior parts of a behavior setting.

These ideas may be put together by considering a rather common camp behavior setting, the Flag Ceremony. This event will require assembly (behavior) at a designated time (temporal milieu) and place (spatial milieu) and pledge of allegience by all campers and staff (behavior) to a flag (object in the milieu). The behaviors and the milieu will show some synomorphy; for example, the assembly area will be large enough to accommodate the campers; the flag and its pole will be in a position for unobstructed viewing. Finally, this set of behaviors can be seen as encompassed by the space and time boundaries; these milieu boundaries are "circumjacent" to the ceremonial behavior.

At the start of this discussion, it was mentioned that agreement on a description of camp might be difficult because one might emphasize either site, people or activities. You have probably noticed that the concept of behavior setting makes this choice between emphases unnecessary; the setting includes all three of these ideas and puts them into relation with one another. The behavior setting is a fusion of these aspects of the environment.

We suggest consideration of the behavior setting idea for the description of camp for several reasons:

1. These units are natural ones; they are not arbitrary slices of reality decided upon by a researcher.
2. These units are "real" in the sense that a minimum of inference is required to perceive them; one can see the behavior setting, Cookout, in operation.
3. As developed, these units are both ubiquitous and discrete: people are always in one behavior setting or another; they are never in two settings at once.
4. As environmental systems coupled closely with the behavior of individuals, behavior settings are coercive. If behavior change is sought, change of setting will frequently accomplish it. A change in a setting will affect the perceptions, the overt behaviors, and the experiences of its inhabitants.

Camping involves exploitation of site, of groups, of activity. Camping is not, by its very nature, closely allied to individual psychology. Theoretical command of camping issues requires a suitable set of concepts; it seems to me that psychological ecology with its behavior setting unit is beginning to provide such concepts.

One other comment on behavior settings - sometimes people wonder why habits and emotions, et al are not mentioned as facets. These are considered causes and recognized as aspects which may be responsible for what one sees an individual doing; however, Barker does not use habits and emotions but is attempting to handle the setting as reality, what one sees rather than cause, with objective and externalized dimensions.

WHAT I SEE HAPPENING IN CAMP -- WHY?

As a Camp Bureau Director Sees It

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This evening we have been asked to share some thoughts with you relative to the topic, "What I See Happening at Camp -- Why?" I would like to share a few thoughts starting with a point of view -- not necessarily from an individual camp director, but rather one who is involved in the community organization of camping, planning for camping, and its development, study and analysis of the movement. May I guide our thinking for a few moments on some of the things that seem to be coming to the surface. I do not think that I need say very much to you about the general overall growth in camping because we are certainly well aware of the changes that are taking place, but I think there is a bit of data that is rather encouraging, yet also perhaps a bit disturbing when we try to relate ourselves to how we can best meet the needs of the general advance of our exploding communities.

First of all, I would like to quote a few facts from the U.S. Statistical Abstract, 1962, to help us become more aware of the tremendous increase in the population of the nation. Between 1950 and 1960 the United States population increased 19½%. Between 1960 and 1970, it is predicted that the increase will net 15.6% to 18.6%. In some areas this pressure is not as great as it is in other areas, yet density of population is becoming one of the problems for us on the West Coast, particularly in the San Francisco and the Los Angeles areas. We are finding that no matter how much pre-planning we are able to do and carry out, our planning is just about keeping even with our population increase, for every 24 hours 1000 new persons come into the Los Angeles area.

The population is increasing within age groups at various rates. Between the years of 1950 and 1961, the population increase of persons between ages 5 and 19 years was over 60%. Between 1960 and 1970 it is predicted that between the ages of 5 and 14 years, the increase in that population segment will be 19% and between the ages of 15 and 19 years that population segment will increase by some 41%. In planning for our camping program and camping facilities, how many of us have really taken a close look at what this means? This ought to challenge all of us to take a look at the various age groupings, how they are going to change, how they are going to develop, and how large these increases are going to be. We talk about the tapering off of teenage camping; yet, the U.S. Census informs us that we can expect a 41% increase in this population segment. This certainly will exert some demands on us. Also, 58% of the children are now in families of 3 or more children. What does this mean in terms of camp attendance?

We are finding some interesting effects from our population movements. The upper-middle and middle income families are continuing to move to the suburbs. From 1950 to 1961 the suburbs grew 3 times as fast as the total United States population and 30 times as fast as the central cities. New suburbs are invariably developing as a one-class community, both economically and socially. It is interesting to know that in a sampling of several thousand campers this past season, suburbanites tend to camp more frequently than city people in a ratio about three to one. This is almost the same figure that the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission found in their survey data. What really is happening is that our cities are being left with a very high ratio of older age and lower income groups. These areas are less homogeneous than the suburbs, and ultimately as we get further movement within the cities these lower income groups move from one section of the city to another.Some of the older folks who are on pensions are finding that they cannot keep up with the rising tax structures and, in effect, the minority groups move into these areas and the effect is re-segregation. This is having its effect on camping, too, believe it or not. When the whites move out, minorities move in. The National Council of YMCA did a sampling in relation to this particular item among 11 camps in New Jersey and Pennsylvania. They found that three of these camps had 15% non-white campers, two had 25% non-white campers, and one had 21% non-white campers. In all camps the ratio of repeat campers was higher among non-whites than among whites. None of the camps had been filled to capacity for three years prior and all of them were finding it increasingly difficult to secure white camp enrollment. However, camp occupancy generally seems to be showing an increase from 10% to 15%, as reported by several national organizations. We have been noting on the west coast there has been a decrease of approximately 2% in private camp enrollments and we are concerned about this mortality rate. As to occupancy of other outdoor facilities, the State of California Division of Recreation and Parks indicated this year (1963) that their facilities were over-used by approximately 30%. These are population factors, I think, that we have to measure, analyze and evaluate to determine what camping in general is going to do in regard to the situation. Awareness, analysis and planning will help camping meet these challenges of the 1960's.

A second item that continually raises its head is the increasing amount of competition for recreation dollars. It is reported that between 1950 and 1961 the median family income increased 28.4% from an average of $4,444 to $5,737. Home ownership is at an all-time high. The work week is being shortened; from 1850 to 1960 we have had a gain of 26 free hours per week in the labor market. And every evidence is that in the near future this is going to continue to decrease. Although our people have more money and more leisure time, we are finding that there is a greater amount of competition than ever before from school camping, Little League, mobile family camping,family ownership, power boats, tours, and travel. These are all items that have been stated as major concerns to the camp director during the past year. I do not know how valid this particular item is, but we are finding an increasingly large number of camp directors who are citing the tremendous increase of privately owned swim pools and the closed membership beach clubs as highly competitive to the camp owner, particularly when the campsite does not have a pool as a part of the facility. In our area, Los Angeles, one out of every thirteen families has a swimming pool. These leisure pursuits compete not only for the leisure hour but also for the leisure dollar. Even though the median family income has increased as indicated above, more parents are being forced into part-time work. The U.S. Dept. of Labor this year reports that there will be an increasing number of married women age 35 and over seeking part-time jobs up to the year 1973 at least. Coupled with this competition for the recreation dollar is the problem of the increases in camp fees. We are finding that in a ten year span, camp fees in general in our area have increased about 90%. The average camp fee in the State of California in 1950 was approximately $17 per week. In 1961 it was $32.40; last year it was $33. Families are unable to keep their children in camp the longer camp periods and therefore the stay in camp is being shortened. During the same period, 1950 to 1961, the average stay in camp was shortened from 14 days to 11 days. So as families are concerned with the increased demand upon their salaries, I think we have to ask ourselves where we are going in terms of camper assistance. Campership programs may not be the total answer, but certainly we ought to be giving some time and analysis to planning campership aid for children of needy economic levels.

The next item that I would like to share is the matter of increasing difficulty in procuring competent leadership. It is obvious to most of us that camp salaries have not kept pace with other salary increases, nor in proportion to the increases in tuition and expenses at most universities and colleges. Yet, we have not been too realistic in our approach to salaries. Moreover, the extended school year may create some interesting new problems. UCLA has voted to go to the extended school program in September, 1964, and will be moving into either a three or four semester plan. This is a situation which will modify our leadership pool from a longer period of availability to perhaps very little availability. If summer camping is to continue on the same basis as schools expand their programs, there are going to have to be some very interesting adjustments and readjustments made to procure the pool of labor needed for summer camp leadership. Another item that concerns us is the exceedingly high turn-over ratio in camp staff, particularly with counselors. In a study of 8 camps located in Southern California, the turn-over rate among staff was 78%. In investigating individual cases, we found that money was not always the main item involved, but the handling of situations in the camp, the lack of "good" administration, and the competency of directors left a great deal of room for improvement in the eyes of the counselors. Still another area in which we need to examine ourselves and re-evaluate our programs is that of staff training. We might include more training and material in the field of human relations.

The last item I would like to share is that of the need to evaluate building programs in light of our camping philosophies and the increase in maintenance costs. The trend today seems to be towards elaborate facilities for year-round use. In light of the criticism we have been hearing from legislators, fire marshals and health officers, I am not so sure but that we have not gone too far along this line of facility development and need to back up and take a very close look at our camping facilities and the functions and the purposes they serve. Can we really get along without this building? Do we have to have it as elaborate? I know there are problems involved in meeting building codes, but when we see these fancy, unique buildings going up with plate glass windows and revolving beacons on the top, we must ask outselves, "What basically is the purpose and the function of such units; what is our philosophy as directors of camping?" The problem realistically is how to provide real camping experiences. What minimal facilities are needed to do this? How do we make available real wilderness and trip camping?

Our fee structure must certainly be re-established on a realistic basis in the light of the new data acquired in relationship to our costs of operation.

In our area, land acquisition is probably one of the most difficult problems. Land must be acquired now to expand services and to protect the wilderness character of the presently owned sites, or it will be gone forever. For the past two years we have been working with the U.S. Forest Service, Angeles National Forest, the Los Angeles County and City Recreation Departments in planning for the amount of acreage and sites that will be needed in this area for organized camping in the year 2000. It was a very interesting and rewarding experience to work for these groups in coordinating efforts to provide adequate space for all the kinds and types of camping with our population predicted through the year 2000. A major factor has been the high cost per acre of land in the face of the fact that recreation is a low yield per square foot investment. If we don't produce and if we don't use these facilities to the maximum, this acreage in camping will ultimately be turned over to business and housing developments. You say that these sites are out in the mountains and foothills; nonetheless, four camps in this area (Los Angeles) have been absorbed and developed into housing tracts and camping has been forced to take property that was not as ideal as it should have been.

In conclusion, planning for the future of camping must certainly be bold and venturesome. We need to accumulate new facts. We need to develop new goals and new ideas in the design of our camping program. Financing and administration present great challenges for the future. New ways of cooperation must be found. The joint use of facilities ought to be extended to bring better services to all concerned. I would be hopeful that the role of Camping Magazine might be expanded to provide more depth studies and materials of a true research nature. Abstracts of materials such as is scheduled at this workshop would make interesting data for later release to the total membership. In this manner and in other ways we could help stimulate additional interest in an area, research, that has not yet been popularly accepted by camp directors.

As an Agency Camp Director Sees It

Armand Ball
Executive Secretary, Camp Widjiwagan
YMCA, St. Paul, Minnesota

We are going to take a little different view of this question. We are going to go in the camp and look at it and talk about the questions we have from within the camp. I was glad to see "Psychopathologic Risks of Camp Life" by Redl included in the portfolio, because I think this is one area in which we can stand some research. What are some of the real risks that we run in camping experiences for the first year camper? What do we do and how can we be alert to these sorts of campers when parents are not alert to risks that they are running in sending campers to camp? How can we become alert to these risk possibilities early in the summer, and then begin to meet them?

I am concerned at the point of the group. I happen to belong to the school who thinks the living group is the primary group in camp. Whether you believe this or whether you approach camping as the individual's joining many different groups, you still are faced with the problem of the camper's being pressed into a group where he goes the way of the group. It is very difficult in this setting to draw a line between individual expression and following the crowd or the herd, a constant problem you face in today's culture. Real research at this point would help us to appreciate an approach to the camper that would still give him individual expression within the group. In a camp setting he is forced to the same living surroundings; he is forced to the same general activities, though he may choose one activity over another. Once he makes that basic choice, he is to go the way of the herd, almost without exception. This is perhaps a bit extreme, but this is an area in which we could do some study.

What happens to the "loner" in a group? What happens when the camp director begins doing the grouping of campers and here is one Negro boy, one Negro girl? What happens to the boy when he is placed within a group and to the group itself? What happens to the boy of a different religious faith -- extremely different from the other boys in the group? What happens to the girl from a low economic community who was placed in a middle-class group? Or, vice versus. Quite often, I think, in a grouping process we are faced with a "loner" in a camp group. What are factors in this area?

What about the grouping process in terms of good research at the camp level when working with campers at the same age, the same sex, trying to group them homogeneously? This is a fairly unique grouping process; therefore, research might give us some very good practice and principles which can be used in grouping campers.

How do we develop values in the camping experience to carry back home? Maybe this is not our goal, but if it is how do you go about this? How can you tell you are getting values that really carry over to the home setting, particularly when you work in a camp setting that is directly opposed to the home setting. The group is different where there is an opportunity for a different source of programming of the imaginative and unstructured type. When he gets back to the home setting he is pretty well bound to the school, to organized sports, to the certain things that are available in his neighborhood. What carry-over values do we stress that need research?

What values actually relate themselves in a camp setting to the values of our present day culture? We haven't changed camping activities much as far as some of the basic activities. We have changed some of our structure and glamorized lots of it, but most of the basic activities are retained in the camp setting. Yet our culture is changed a great deal as pointed out earlier. Now what happens here? The camper has spent all year in school, at home, in social organizations and the church in a time pressured manner. He is constantly meeting a time schedule. Even an elementary-age child has obligations in the club, choir, dance class, particularly in suburbia. Then you get him in camp. Do you put him in another set of circumstances to which he is accustomed? Do you put him in a totally unstructured situation where there is very little pressure from his group? What happens when you do this? For instance, one of the characteristics of a middle teen-ager is rebellion against adults, particularly the adults in his family circle. Those adults in the family circle react to him in a certain way. By this stage he reacts about the same way to a certain set of given behavior. When he comes to camp he is given a new set of adults who have no preconceived idea about his particular behavior. Now he is given a whole new opportunity to express himself, and in some camp situations the teen-ager becomes a totally different person than he was back at home. How can we develop a carry-over so he begins to relate within the family circle? Some responsibility, maintaining his independence but not breaking away entirely. And, on the other side of the coin, how can we help his parents accept the teen-ager in a bit different light on his return? Take the younger camper. What are some security factors that we can introduce in the camping situation for a 7 or 8 year old camper who is coming to camp for the first time and is very apt to lean toward homesickness? What are some security factors in the home setting? What factors can we find in research that we can place in the camp setting to prevent homesickness and guide the camper into a helpful camping experience?

The age-old question of how you evaluate camper performance is important. I am sure all of us make some attempt to evaluate campers. Maybe not in a written form. Maybe only through a personal [illegible] with the counselor, the unit leader or director. Do you send a report card home to the parents? Whatever degree of camper evaluation you do, I feel that most of us can talk about the research and what is measurable in camp performance. What can be reported to parents? What can be reported and shared again with the boy's counselor next year? There is some real meat here for research and study.

In discussing this topic last week, a friend who worked in camp for a number of years suggested it would be very helpful if we could figure out how to get a comprehensive picture of the camper during the 10 months when he is back at home and in school, when he comes back to us for the second and third season. Making this material and the understanding of how the boy or girl developed during the year available, would make a change in our approach and ability to work with this camper.

The whole field of motivational research that has come forth in the last decade gives us a raw area of research in working with campers. How do we motivate campers? Why do we want to motivate them? Motivate them to do what? We have objectives in camp. How do we get them to the point of getting ready to meet the goal? After all, they came to camp primarily for fun. We've got to meet this goal first. We've got to meet their basic satisfactions. The whole behavioral sciences have some questions on research that could shed light on some of our problems and questions in camp.

What about the teen-ager? Are we losing him, generally speaking? We hope we aren't losing him in every instance. There are camps which turn away teen-agers. But how do you hold a teen-ager? What place is there for the older high school boy in camp? What sort of adventurous settings can be provided that are totally new and different for the teen-age camper? What sort of work setting can we provide at camp for the junior and senior in high school? How can we meet his personal needs to work and at the same time provide group living experience? What are the possibilities of the camp setting to develop a program that will help a camper earn money? What happens to a camper when he begins earning money?

This whole area of work experience is one in which we have done very little research. Some have toyed with this. Some camps are doing quite a bit with work experiences with teen-agers along with younger campers. What are the values of work in the camp setting? And what is the actual value or impact of the work experiences all of us have, in the camp setting, for the camper. Simple camp tasks -- may be setting tables, cleaning up the toilets, or sweeping the grounds. What real impact or what value or impression would this leave with the camper? Could this give him a negative reaction? Does he return home and always make up his bed? We know that's not quite true! We do have enough research at that point just talking to parents without having statistics. But what are some valuable work experiences that can be brought into the camp program, that will help the camper learn the joy of work?

The field of education is pressing at every hand for our campers. Summer school has already taken its toll. The extended school year is certainly a possibility in many states. Some have even suggested in recent camping literature that perhaps we ought to move the school into the camp setting -- that we ought to have more classroom educational experiences in camp, that we ought to be doing educating in the morning and camp in the afternoon. What happens to the camper who comes to camp and finds himself in school?

How do we help the counselor in the camp setting to record the experiences he has with his campers and yet do it quickly and briefly? How can this small group record be maintained so that the unit leader or supervisor may keep an accurate record of the happenings within the whole unit, particularly in a camp where the group is the total program group? Here is an area where some research can be done in a camp, if the supervisor were trained and the right information could be selected by the counselor and an accurate plan of recording developed.

What about camp program? We have been related to the camper in all of his home settings. We bring a child from the inner-city, an area of concrete, immediately into an area of trees, a whole change of environment. We bring him from plush suburbia into a primitive camp setting where there is no running water or electric lights. We bring him from a mechanized world to a camp setting where his muscles become his push-buttons. Perhaps we bring him from a home setting where he is pretty well given direction by his parents and school into a camp where he has to plan his own schedule to assume his own daily needs and responsibilities. What happens to the camper when you change his environment entirely? Is he the same person? What factors change here when you change the setting?

I said earlier I didn't have the answers, but there are the questions.

As a Private Camp Director Sees It

John Holden
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In considering the question, "What is happening in camp today?" it may be well for us to reminisce a bit, to compare the camps of today with those of yesteryear, and attempt to determine whether our camps have grown and developed as we would wish, whether camp today is the camp it should be, what should happen in our camps to make those of tomorrow what we want.

If you will look back some twenty-five or thirty years with me, or perhaps twice that number if you are a trifle older, you may remember your own introduction to camp. In all probability you were one of several young people who left the environs of the teeming metropolis for a summer in the woods or the wilderness, and you reached camp after a rather tedious ride by auto or train. At the end of a long dusty road through the wilderness you came to a beautiful lake surrounded by near-virgin forest where the waters shimmered in the sunlight and wild creatures bounded across the path. At the campsite you found a few tents filled with cots or mattress-ticks and a very rustic mess hall with its large wood-burning cook stove. Beyond these immediate fixtures there was not much else to be seen except trees, water, fields of waving grass, and an excited group of contemporaries. You survived this ardous journey and introduction so that you might enjoy an experience in group living in the great outdoors. As the days and weeks rolled by you participated in a program which taught you much: how to work and build and live in rather primitive conditions. You came to picture yourself as one of our hardy pioneers. The creeks you crossed on hikes were great rivers that must be crossed on the way west, and the romantic atmosphere which pervaded the entire camp was thrilling and stimulating. You became tough of muscle and clean of mind. You learned a great deal about the give and take of elemental living. You learned to respect the other fellow for what he was and what he did, not what he said. You returned home at the end of the camp season with a rugged sun-bronzed body and boundless enthusiasm for life in the great outdoors.

But times have changed, regulations have changed, pressures have changed; indeed, a way of living has changed, and camps have changed. They are changing today. As we look at camp today we can see the change which has taken place; we can envisage the changes which may follow.

From a wilderness site with a few tents and a mess hall our camp has grown into a community of many buildings with modern plumbing and the latest in facilities and equipment. Our camp program has shifted from a survival in the wilderness theme to a pageant complete with dramatics, shuffleboard, water skiing and competitive nervous tensions spawned by city life. The State Board of Health insists on upgrading our standards for sanitation. The Little League at home forced us to introduce competitive baseball. The mother who thought her son should learn water skiing at camp pushed that one off on us. The seventeen other camps with which we compete obliged us to include a dazzling array of program features including bronco-busting and mountain climbing even though we are a woods and lake-situated camp.

What then is happening in camp today? We are attempting to compete with every type of recreational outlet which thrusts its head above the horizon. We are building glorified baby-sitting country clubs that espouse character building when in fact they build "characters". We, of the private camp field, are attempting to do all of this and make a few bucks profit to boot.

As Dr. Charles Eliot, President Emeritus of Harvard University, so poignantly pointed out in an address to the New England Camping Association conference in Boston, the one truly unique contribution which America has been able to make to the field of education is its program of camping. Why then has America set about to destroy this great contribution through mongrellization? Is a wonderful experience in group living so worthless? Should the modern camp now resemble the urbanized youth center? Or should it present an ever greater challenge to youth for the development of physical stamina, social understanding, emotional maturity, group-centered responsibility? It should! Will it?

Today, we see other things happening in camp. We see parents developing an awareness that is for the most part frightening, for our parents are not aware of camp qualities which really count: the dedicated staff people who work in camps, the carefully planned programs which help their children develop. Too many parents are anxious to find a camp for "Johnny" which will first and foremost provide him with a "good time" which may be translated into a baby-sitting institution where laziness and indolence are the big things. Too few parents are looking for a camp where "Sammy" will be obligated to meet a challenge, to work hard, to endure some discomfort which may be of his own making, where he will rub shoulders with well-qualified and dedicated camp counselors who are vitally interested in him and his growth. And if parents feel this way, it is we, the camp people, who are so educating them, with the type of camps we offer.

Camps are changing today in the type of counselors (and we use the term very guardedly) they hire. When you and I trekked out that long dusty road to the lake we found a number of men anxious to work with us who were wise in the ways of the woods, and wise in the ways of young people. Most of them boasted extensive training and many years of service with the "Chief". Today we may find a group of inexperienced high school and college youngsters who are looking forward to the thrill of "counseling" the boys, but in effect require more counseling than they are able to give. The quality of camp personnel is changing in camps today. The change in recent years has not been for the better.

And the raw material with which we deal is changing in camp today. The camper himself is not the same "breed of cat" that you and I were when we went to camp. Today's camper is more sophisticated and less responsible. He has known little in the way of hardship (private campers, that is). He is, as all know, badly spoiled, the boss of the family circle. How do we appeal to him? How do we appeal to him, especially in his teen years? Has our camp changed to meet his needs? If it only had! The sophisticated teen-ager of today needs a challenge far greater than you and I. He is not willing to "bob for apples" even with girls, nor pin the tail on the donkey; and yet camp has not changed to meet his needs. For he wants a challenge, a big husky healthy challenge which demands his very best. He is smarter than you and I. He is more sophisticated, and he can go further. Has our camp changed so that it may stimulate him? Generally not! We are still thinking about it.

Perhaps here's where research should come in. This is a meeting on research, and camps are waiting for the answers to vital questions. They do not want picayune analyses of toenail-tugging situations. Our camps today are changing fast. They want to know if they are headed in the right direction. The researchers can provide vast help.

Should the camp of today build a program which is challenging to boys and girls of all ages, or should it cut back on its age service? Should the camp of today pioneer new program features, maintain old ones, branch into the multitudinous fields which are dangled as bait, or return to the somewhat limited, rather primitive approach to life in the great outdoors? Should the camp of today hire younger men, older men, experienced men or inexperienced men? Should it institute a real "by gosh" course of staff training or sham the public with fuzzy associations? Should private camps concentrate on full enrollments or on establishing the true goals of camping per se? Can they do both?

Yes, camp is changing today. It is changing from a lovely wilderness campsite on a remote wilderness lake to a crowded cosmopolitan community on the edge of a polluted overrun body of water. It is changing from a challenging adventure with nature to a bevy of medals and best awards in everything from basket-weaving to fronenspiel (that's an Afghan game). The one hope for turning camps toward their true mission of a sound educational experience in group living in primitive conditions is research, and its effect on the people of camping. When every camp reaches a point where it may send campers home at the end of a summer feeling that each has contributed something worthwhile to the camp, when each camper feels that the camp has been different because he (an individual) has been there, then camps will change in a direction for the better. And research can help them make this change.

PHASE II: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY SUITABLE TO THE CAMP SETTING

Research Technology as Applied to Camp

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Research technology needs desperately to be applied to the camp setting because more mystical, inspirational hogwash has been written about the camp movement than probably any other philosophy in America. Those of us who come to camping from the world of hospital-clinical work with children are accustomed to our own parochial mysticism and find that of camping somewhat strange to behold. It may even be that the camping movement suffers from an acute case of nostalgia occasioned by the historical shift of American society from a rural to an urban culture and an intense feeling that somehow, in the cultural shift, fundamental values and standards were lost to mankind. There is a phenomenon called "old oaken bucket thinking" in which, selectively, the cool water of the well that slaked a summer's thirst is recalled while the long hours and sweat of farm toil is conveniently forgotten. It is from this context - with the addition of a soupcon of Rousseau's natural man - that the joys of nature and wide open spaces have been exalted in the camping movement and the virtues which exist in the city have been denigrated. (8, 11).

I am not advocating big city camping in luxury motels. I am stating a simple clinical truth that the primary agent of change in a human being is to be found in his fellow human being. I insist that while "things" make a difference in the development of each of us, they can never match the contribution to growth provided by a sensitive adult in contact with an impressionable child. "Things" make a difference and they ought to be explored in greater depth but the application of research technology to camps really needs to focus on people and how they interact with one another if we are ever to advance the camping movement beyond its long honeymoon with fun and games or vague references to character formation. We are past the day when romantic self-satisfaction is an adequate reason for existence.

I have long had a dream of research perfection in a camp setting - a dream, like most, which I have never been able to finance. My notion of an ideal situation has had less to do with the technology of research than with the technician who would act as master of the tools. My vision was of a research director who worked full time during the summer and half time during the rest of the year packaging research designs, methods, techniques, and instruments focused exclusively on the important dimensions of the camp setting and operation. Then, in addition to the usual program of counselor training in campcraft, I would institute an intensive training program in applied research on the many facets of human interaction in the outdoors.

Research is a ponderous term and one that carries with it a heavy load of surplus meaning. We all know that research is no more than the systematic asking of meaningful questions under controlled circumstances. When phrased in this fashion, the task of research seems much less onerous and substantially less dull than it might at first appear to the novice. We could probably offer no more meaningful experience to beginning counselors than to teach them to reach conclusions about human behavior on a more solid base of systematic, controlled study. Human beings are notorious for their ability to form conclusions in advance of adequate evidence and for their equally great ability selectively to accumulate experiences to buttress their erroneous belief. People who work with people need to learn an almost paranoid scientific and clinical caution if they are to avoid loading their intellectual warehouse with a collection of half-truths about which they are absolutely convinced and around which they organize their entire professional activities. The so-called "natural" counselors turn out to be those young persons whose life has made them sensitive to the nuances of emotional expression in others and to the nature of their own reaction to interchange with their fellow humans.

While no supervised camping experience can really transform an insensitive adult or an erroneous philosophy into its opposite, a carefully guided research experience can shake them out of their complacency and can prepare the ground for planting a new attitude, a new approach, or at least a greater skepticism about accepting behavior at its apparent face value.

In any application of research technology to a camp setting you have at once an almost matched set of singular advantages and disadvantages. The researcher has, in a camp, a 24-hour-a-day captive research population - a population he is usually able to observe in so great a variety of interactions that he can accumulate substantial insight about the probable test reactions of the subjects before they enter the testing situation. Control over the daily program of children is a researcher's dream except that a number of taboos exist about removing subjects from activities offering high gratification. In this respect, removing a child from swimming is almost totally taboo even in a camp for normal children. Among the disadvantages of a camp setting must be listed the problem of using traditional devices in totally untraditional settings. (10).

At the University of Michigan Fresh Air Camp I have had psychologists who gave Rorschachs while sitting on hillsides infested with chiggers and various other alien forms of life. I have seen questionnaires administered in canoes and I have seen tests given in such bits and pieces that the author of the test would roll continuously in his grave; yet, I have endorsed such administrative choas.

I have long been a believer in the theory that normative studies of research instruments have encouraged a rigidity in application which is not warranted by the facts of test results and I have been, as a consequence, a violent advocate of ingenuity and experimentation in matters of research. I favor what my colleagues might label the misapplication of traditional tools primarily because I have long felt that a mystic, temple cult of exact procedure and magical meanings has existed for too long. I encourage students to invent their own systems of diagnostic appraisal and I make them do research until they get the answers to their questions even if it takes the entire camping season to accomplish it. It is surprising, by the way, to see the fervor with which students pursue their research once the proper mood has been set. In this respect it must be said, parenthetically, that the attitude of the camp director and his behavior with regard to supervision of, and participation in, the research are the fundamental determining factors. Many persons give lip-service to research since it is culturally approved, but manage to communicate, simultaneously their feeling that it is a lot of foolishness and will produce little advance for science.

My first observations about the application of research technology to camp would include, then, emphasis on:

1. The unique position of camps as research settings.
2. The need for positive encouragement of, and participation in, research by camp directors.
3. And, the willingness to use orthodox instruments in unorthodox ways to answer your research questions.

Having established these elements, I would next nominate invention and inventiveness as the most important elements in research technology. It is axiomatic that people seeking solutions to problems always stop seeking too soon. They tend to stop at the first answer they discover. With a loud cry of "AHA!" they cease to quest further and thus often miss a more elegant, economical, reliable, or valid means of getting answers to their questions. In some research laboratories, deliberate exercises in inventiveness are conducted. Scientists are given a collection of odds, ends, bits, and pieces and told to create something useful from them. This exercise in brainstretching and perceptual reorientation could profitably be applied to research efforts of counselors and camping staff members. Suppose, for example, a camp director were to assign the same problem to each of his counselors, require that they reach independent solutions, design and execute a suitable program of investigation, and then compare eventual findings. This single, simple exercise could be invaluable as a means of teaching the single truth that there are many avenues capable of taking the researcher to his objective. For morale purposes with such exercises, a two or three person team seems most effective since first ventures into research tend to need some support.

The topics suitable for research are many and varied. Assuming that the research director has managed to contain the enthusiasm of the beginning researcher (students always plan projects of a size to stagger the imagination of the Ford Foundation), and has been able to strike a healthy balance between counseling and research, he can give the student full rein to begin anywhere. There is no facet of the total camp experience that has been subject to adequate experimental investigation; so the student is not embarassed by research riches. The process and criteria for selection of campers (providing it is not solely monetary) can be examined in light of later camp behavior, in terms of cabin groupings, with respect to counselor assignments, with regard to peer relationships or food intake or swimming progress. In much the same fashion, the interrelationship of parts of the total camp experience can be examined with respect to any or all of the forces that impinge upon it. The longitudinal appraisal of the effect of camping during the months and years that follow camp is, in some camp settings, equally feasible.

The list of possibilities for research need not be labored further since it is available immediately to anyone willing to sit in his armchair for a few moments and think about it. There must be a certain amount of excitement about research if the researcher is to keep motivated. To keep interest and excitement high, I would suggest that the consideration of possible topics for research pass over the more conventional alternatives and concentrate rather on those elements of the camping situation that are most sacrosanct or least well explored. Let me suggest some to illustrate what I have in mind.

At the University of Michigan Fresh Air Camp we have experimented with a number of arrangements not normally a part of a camp plan. We have experimented with assigning six counselors to a cabin in teams of three each; we have abandoned flag raising at a time in the morning when everyone must be on deck, we have eliminated all returnee campers; we let campers get up in the morning whenever they feel like it rather than at a specified time; we have let counselor teams choose their own working companions; we have set each morning as a totally free activity period in which we play zone defense in the various areas of camp; we have moved children out of one cabin group to another on their request; we have even pioneered the eating of dessert before the main course; we have allowed comic book reading at the table and allowed children to leave meals whenever the urge moves them. I am the first to admit that we have sustained some wounds in this combat against tradition, but we have never wavered in our policy of experimentation.

The program and routine of camp is a prime subject for research appraisal, but it must be kept in mind that these changes ought never be executed without a companion plan designed to assess the dimensions of success and failure.

There are other topics that deserve mention as vital areas in need of research primarily because so little has been done with them. Counselor appraisal of the kind, quality, and nature of camp leadership tends to be such a forbidden topic. Few of us are mature enough to face up to our secret thoughts of our temporary staff members, yet anyone who ever was exploited as in the counselor role knows full well of the discrepancy between the polite role playing of a counselor who-is-supposed-to-admire-the-chief and the content of secret bull sessions late at night in the privacy of the counselor's quarters. Leaders tend to be the most deluded of persons since they have so little access to the truth as seen by those they employ and because leaders tend to be reluctant to hear harsh things about themselves.

In much the same fashion, little research technology has been applied to the topic of counselor perception of peers or of counselor-camper relationships. I know that every camp director tries his best to take the pulse of his staff in informal ways but there is a built-in urge to avoid trouble and to sweep discontent under the rug until the season is over and this urge acts to promote denial of the problem. At best, inter-personal difficulties are minimized or shunted aside in the interests of keeping the camp ship afloat. A kind of schizophrenia exists around leadership and peer relations. Every veteran camp member spends his social hours regaling others with wild tales of creepy directors for whom he once worked or of weird fellow counselors he once encountered. These tales, usually true if somewhat exaggerated overtime, are perfect substance for scientific exploration but they have never been examined. Perhaps camping attracts, among adults, a high percentage of us who are emotional adolescents busy cloaking our immaturity in concepts such as character development.

My observation here is simple. Before we can speak intelligently of the application of research technology to the camp setting, we must first be sure that our efforts are not rendered innocuous and impotent by heavy restrictions in the legal subject matter we are free to investigate. I am impressed by the fact that we have spent most of our time investigating campers and very little time examining those who are responsible for the camping movement itself. It might one day be apparent that camping serves adults better than it does children.

If we can assume these observations will be taken to heart, we can move now to look at other facets of the problem of the application of research technology to the camp setting. The topic of research is vitally important but we must be clear that given the topic, we must still settle on the level at which the research is to be executed. (A sample of the range of research possible in camp can be found in the bibliography studies.)

Considerations of level must include some estimate of the length of time and amount of effort required to bring any project to full conclusion. Most first attempts at research suffer from expansionistic and imperialistic tendencies that only add to the tons of unanalyzed data that clutter up research offices across the face of the land. In the fervor of amassing raw data, insufficient time is allotted for the lonely work of analysis, interpretation, and communication and many promising researches never see the light of day as ardor wanes for the pursuit of research. It takes some time for the novice researcher to transfer his emotional involvement to that time in research when the greatest thrill really occurs - when the research sweats out the statistical analysis and sees the birth of the first predicted significant result. Massiveness, variety of measures, complexity of assessment, and number of subjects are actually irrelevant to good research. For years the head of the psychology department at the University of Michigan offered a prize for the doctoral dissertation that could be written in no more than 25 pages. I know of only two persons who collected this prize and both did classic work in psychological experimentation. I believe what I was taught by Daniel R. Miller, who was my own research chairman, that if sufficient planning and pre-testing is done the collection of data should be automatic and the analysis and interpretation should contain few surprises. The lesson of planning is a difficult one, however, and ought to come later in the career of the novice. For first attempts I think it is wise to trade perfectionism for enthusiasm. Students frequently learn as much from the shortcomings of their first efforts as they do from their successes. So the first rule of research technology ought to be simplicity based on sound preplanning.

A second rule of research technology ought to be the avoidance of instrument romanticism. There is a magic of pseudo-professionalism that comes from walking around a camp with your Rorschach cards tucked underneath your arm. If the student can be kept from this status-aggrandizement and from the mood of playing psychologist, he can learn the real thrill of research that comes from being the creator of research techniques and methods. Even among sophisticated research workers the appearance of a new technique or instrument on the horizon always occasions a sudden burst of enthusiasm that shortly is tempered by an inevitable reality of research findings. The process of invention is clearly more difficult at the same time that it is more rewarding. A camp director must learn to tolerate and encourage invention if he is to succeed in encouraging research among members of his staff.

A third admonition about the level of research possible in a camp setting has to do with the usefulness of the findings. While I am a staunch believer in pure theoretical research for its own sake, I feel the current level of camp research is in such a primitive state that a criterion of utility is needed. There is, of course, a snobbery attached to pure versus applied research and this is difficult to overcome. A level of research dedicated to the assessment of on-going projects, to the appraisal of procedures and methods, to the methods of camper and counselor selection, and to the impact of the camping experience on the child's personality are perfectly legitimate aims for research for, in truth, they pose the most vexing of psychological problems. Utility is an important aspect of the value system of our culture and it ought not to be ignored.

Utility as an aim of research can be enhanced by the development of what is called program research. While a succession of individual projects can be supported and encouraged, there is no reason why these researchers should be random in their organization. With a little pre-planning the individual projects can be made to complement one another and to point in the same direction. Once a basic research question has been framed, it always leads naturally to a host of ancillary questions that need also to be answered. No simple, single answer is ever adequate if a complex question is asked and any research question can be sub-divided into a series of sub-parts each one of which is manageable on a small scale. The important feature of program research is to be found in the way in which each part contributes to the eventual total mosaic. Program research permits the formation of research teams and gives a greater overall meaning and significance to the total research efforts.

Fundamental to any research effort is the willingness of the camp director to be sufficiently flexible to allow experimentation. As they are wont to say on Madison Avenue, "this is where the rubber meets the road." It is at exactly this juncture that one can discern the difference between polite nodding of approval at a speech and the actual determination to do something about research in the next camp season. In this respect "the spirit is indeed willing but the flesh is exceedingly weak." Camp directors, on the average, feel rightfully, that they have enough problems in simply keeping the show on the road and don't need the additional grief of research complications. Indeed, if the aim of the camp director is only to meet the mark of the previous summer then it is reasonable to "hide-out" from the demands of research.

Such statements are not really derogatory when applied to modern camp directors because the same charges can be levelled at the last 70 years of the camping movement. When we consider the total manpower involved summer after summer in outdoor camping and we place this in the proper context of the modern scientific age, we can only conclude that the research output has been pitiful in its dimensions. Fortunately or unfortunately, the bulk of the American public is responsive to the philosophy of character-building inherent in the camp-movements and sends its children religiously each year, in part, for that purpose. Now I believe that personality and character change really does occur at camp, or at least I believe that the first steps of such psychological alteration are provided by the camp experience. However, I believe that the means by which this occurs is really not understood by the average camp director. I am convinced that, in some fashion, the right things are regularly done by camp directors for essentially the wrong reasons. We have long known that there is more than one way effectively to skin a cat and I have seen some camp directors use group psychology impeccably without the least notion of what they were about. All of this reminds me of the account of the natives who dip their spears in curare believing it has magical properties in the killing of game. Scientists know that curare has a series of complicated physiological effects but they are able to kill no more game than the natives. The important fact is that equipped with the additional knowledge of the effects of curare on the central nervous system, scientists are able to accomplish results in a number of fields that the native hunters could never imagine.

Research, then, opens vistas that are closed to the mind that operates in the magic of the past. Research technology offers a promise for the future that the slavish repetition of the past cannot match. To advocate the immediate conversion of all camp directors into research directors is, of course, visionary. It is an event that has a low probability of occurrence because the essential motives for its appearance do not exist. There is no reasonable way to convince camp directors that they will make substantial gains by a devotion to research rather than top-grade programs for their campers. In this sense, the call to research is a lost cause because its utilization value is low in the initial stages. To end on a note of optimism, I feel the day will come when the unparalleled opportunities for research provided by camp settings will be utilized fully. I think this will happen because I sense an increasing trend to highly specialized camping devoted to a restricted set of goals and aims. When this movement reaches its full growth I think the research demonstration of the value of specialized camping will come into its own.

Despite all I have said, there exists incontrovertible evidence that camping -- whatever it is -- is a better way to spend the summer than being cooped up in the city. Let us hope that one day the basis of this feeling will rest solidly on experimental and scientific fact.

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Discussion: Tests

Tests are increasing at such a tremendous rate, no one can keep up with what they mean and how they are best applied. The basic concepts involved in any tests have to do with reliability and validity. Reliability is when you have a watch that never loses or gains a second. Validity is when that watch also tells you the right time. You can have a test that is so very reliable that you can give it once, wait six months, give it again, and get the same score. After you get the original material you must take the next step to get from what he says to what he will actually do. If, for example, you ask counselors about skills they have you may get a lot of fabrication about how well they can sail, hike, or swim. We get the same kinds of exaggerations in regular tests. People don't want to look bad -- they want to look good. Inventories, surveys, and the pencil-and-paper tests are, at best, only samples taken of the human personality and these samples may never be enough to let you predict accurately. If, for example, you have a test of honesty and you decide to ask questions about all kinds of situations, i.e. Would you steal a dollar? Would you steal a million dollars? What if you found a half dollar lying in the front seat of a Cadillac? With these questions you are trying to measure a trait that you call honesty. Yet, most traits seem to be composites -- they are a mixture of a lot of things beyond simple honesty. There are honest kinds who will cheat if you put enough pressure on them in the right situation. Is there such a thing as honesty and dishonesty? The best answer seems to be that there are situations of honesty and situations of dishonesty. If kept free of gross pressure, most people will be honest most of the time. There are a lot of very honest people who cheat in all sorts of little ways though they may be perfectly reputable citizens in other ways. They may return money that someone has dropped. At the same time they take paper, pencils, etc., home from the office for the children to use.

Another important problem is the ambiguity presented by many items on an objective inventory, "I am more religious than most people." Now, is that true or false? If you don't know how to answer that, you don't know how to answer any item on some tests. The interpretation of these items varies so much that it is difficult to know what they mean to different people. Even if everyone checked the same answer, it may not be a clear indication that each person has the same response and the same intensity of feeling. You can get a score but you don't always know what that score means. You can get a low score on a dimension such as suspiciousness just because the subject doesn't check very many answers. But if he checks the answer that somebody is trying to poison him, and the second one he checks is that the FBI has been persecuting him throughout his whole life, and the third one is that there is a tight band drawing around his head, then he has serious trouble regardless of his total score. The problem is that scores are very deceptive because scores are the totals of items that he checks and everybody interprets these differently. There is also a halo effect. If you set up a questionnaire in which all of the questions are phrased in a positive sense and all are socially acceptable, you will find that the person answering the test may answer yes even when they mean no.

In addition, testing is artifical. It is so far removed from the real world that the validity of any test should be questioned. Objective tests do have the advantage of being standardized -- you know what the normal response is from a lot of people. Such tests are standardized, easy to administer, easy to carry around, and involve less administration time. There is a portable, packageable, neat quality about them; they are easy to score. It isn't that the test is objective, it is that scoring is an objective procedure that requires little training. The objectivity is not in the item but in the scoring procedure.

The difference between objective and projective tests lies primarily in disguise and degree of ambiguity, but there is a whole body of theory behind this. The theory states there is a dynamic structure in the psychic life of human beings. When there is an ambiguous, vague, unstructured area of perception a person will mold it in terms of his own internal psychic structure. If you ask him what an ink blot looks like, the unstructured part of this is supposed to evoke projective imagery. That is, if he has to tell you what it is, the assumption is that he will tell you what it is in terms of what it looks like to him, and what it looks like to him tells you about what's inside him. Like a psychic x-ray, they get his perceptions outside so they can see what's inside. There are all kinds of projective techniques and the basic problem is in assessing their validity. You don't know whether they are really telling you what you think they are telling you. Another problem of projective tests is that they are highly sensitive to your relationship to the person you are testing. The subject also tends to react to his own last response. You have this overall problem of the fact that the experiment is influenced by the presence of the examiner.

Discussion: Research Planning

As a practical experiment in designing research, the members of the workshop went through the process of designing a mythical research program. This exercise was intended to be a demonstration of the kinds of pitfalls, difficulties, limitations, and restrictions which inevitably occur between the time when an idea is originally conceived, and the time when it is actually executed.

The first order of business was to suggest a series of topics and, from them, select the single one we would use as an exercise. Among the topics suggested were: 1) Matching counselor characteristics with the characteristics of campers, 2) The image of the director as held by his staff, 3) The director's image of the American Camping Association, 4) Homesickness and separation anxiety, 5) The value of camping to campers, 6) Unit size and grouping. The group selected "The Value of the Camp Experience to Campers" as the topic on which to set up a mock research. The next step was, of course, to define some of the words that were in the title of this project since value, camper, and experience all needed some definition if we were to proceed.

For demonstration purposes, we selected the value of self-reliance. We selected wilderness camping as the kind of camping experience, and we specified the campers would be thirteen year old boys.

After describing the general topic, the first consideration had to be the examination of the final consideration, that is the report. There are limits on the experimental research design in terms of the nature of the consumer of the final information that is gained from the experiment. If this consumer is to be the general public or parents of prospective campers then the nature of the research, the kind of language that will be used in writing, the statistical forms that will be used, the complexity of the research design -- all of these elements -- must be controlled so that the final product is readable, understandable. The obvious problem -- after deciding about the final report and the consumer audience -- is to work through the dimensions of the research in terms of things such as sample, for example. This constitutes asking what kind of children, from where, with what characteristics. For experimental purposes we limited the camping experience to thirteen year old lower class boys from cities over 400,000 for whom it was a first camping experience. A practical limitation in terms of the kinds of statistics it would be necessary to use dictated that we have forty children in the total sample and that these be divided into four groups of ten each. A list of other variables were compiled that might have an effect on this. Variables such as: race, religion, occupation, education of the father and mother, etc. All of these were considered in terms of the kinds of consequences they would have for a statistical analysis and for the conclusions that one would reach. This discussion raised the issue about the relative narrow but pure sample as opposed to an impure but more representative sample of the average American culture.

The next dimension considered was the physical location of the experiment. It was suggested that it would take place in Canada and it was made clear that any place would do as long as the physical setting was sufficiently wild and untamed. The variable that might make a difference, however, was the distance the children had to go between port of origin (their home) and the wilderness camping experience itself. It was pointed out, for example, that the extended trip to the camping site by the children might contaminate the research simply by virtue of the fact that the children would form a more cohesive unit and set up leadership patterns and patterns of cooperation prior to actually experiencing the wilderness camping for themselves. This would in turn change the nature of the research results. A number of such considerations - cautions really - had to be exercised to make sure that the reported research would truly reflect wilderness camping and not some artifact in the design.

When the group tried to define the nature of wilderness camping and what kind of experience it would be, it soon became apparent that the expansionistic tendencies of our research designers came to the fore. The length of the training period of the children prior to the wilderness camping experience, how far away the camp should be, the kinds of events that should happen in the camp, all these variables and many more were discussed and it became evident that every beginner in research has to learn patience. Patience means the ability to design research without continuously adding to it. The inevitable consequence of planning research is that there is a great tendency to add new hypotheses that the researcher feels impelled to check out. It is these hypotheses which contaminate research by adding on the additional straw to the perverbial camel.

Discussion then moved to self-reliance. This was a crucial variable. It was made clear that a clean definition of what is meant by self-reliance needed to be a definition which was put in operational terms. By operational terms was meant terms that are believable to other people and terms in which the concept of self-reliance is translated into a series of actions, activities, events, and things that are done to, with, by, and for children. Attempts to define self-reliance in terms acceptable to everyone proved to be an extremely difficult task as it would be with any variable that is descriptive. Several elements were suggested as evidence of self-reliance: making up one's own mind, recognition of the fact that one has a problem, assuming responsibility, taking care of oneself, etc. It is pointed out, for example, that a wilderness camping experience could in a very strange way develop increasing reliance on other people and less self-reliance, thus having just the opposite effect. The decision was made that it would be much more reasonable if the child would return to his regular world and demonstrate increased self-reliance in that setting. After a short time, it became apparent that there was no easy middle ground on which all could agree as a definition of self-reliance. Since semantic maneuvering could be continued forever, it was decided to move on to try to find a common estimate that would measure the self-reliance concept. The suggestion was made that an instrument could be devised which would seem to tap the broad general thought about which all agreed.

It was apparent that the research had to be divided into stages: 1) The first stage was the measurement of the variables we were interested in before the experiment began. This would require, for example, going to the homes and getting an assessment of the dependence, independence, self-reliance, and reliance on others of the children in our sample. 2) The second stage would be to repeat these measures after the experiment itself, i.e. after the exposure to wilderness camping, in order to assess whether the change which we thought reasonably ought to come out of wilderness camping actually had been achieved. One of the fundamental problems which confronted us was the fact that self-reliance is a growing process and from early infancy to adulthood people become more self-reliant and less and less reliant on others. Our problem was to assess the kind, quantity, quality, and the rate of change in self-reliance in these children who were exposed to this experience. It was obvious that it could be simply a function of the amount of time that had elapsed while the children were out camping. The children at home in the city who had equally interesting experiences around the area of self-reliance could develop an equal amount of self-reliance and we would be faced with the conclusion that wilderness camping in and by itself was insufficient to produce any quality of self-reliance additional to or beyond what can happen with the proper structured experiences while staying in the city. Another observation was made that the impact of wilderness camping may be such that it occurs much later than one would ever suspect. It may be that the experience of wilderness camping acts simply to set up the readiness for self-reliance, i.e. that it is no more than a method by which one teaches the ways to become self-reliant.

The issue was raised of adequate measures of self-reliance. We discussed various possibilities such as hanging up one's own clothes, the initiation of projects without requiring help, the number of situations in which you could either do it on your own or ask other people to help you, etc. A simple count of the number of requests for help, of course, had complications because it would require that you study the children after the experience of wilderness camping. You might have to look to the parents as reporters of the self-reliant or dependent behavior of the children. This raised the issue of whether or not parents are good reporters. It is obvious that parents have an unusual emotional investment in children of their own and it is possible that they might not be the best reporters of the reality. Another issue raised was that of whether we were correct in assuming that any transfer occurs from wilderness camping to home. Is it reasonable to assume that the self-reliance the child learns in a wilderness camping situation should really apply in a home situation? It may be that this experience is "situation specific", that is that the child learns to be independent in the camping situation but reverts to his previous habits on returning home.

The question of the objectivity of the reporters raised the issue of whether we would be better off measuring self-reliance in the schools rather than in the home itself. It is true that the school eliminates the emotional attachment of the parents to the child and gets greater objectivity. In any research there is a trade-off that is necessary. While one gains objectivity in a less emotional environment in the assessment of the children, at the same time you are faced with a situation in which there may be thirty children in the class, in which the teacher may be unable to select one child for observation and do an adequate job, in which there is an active peer group situation, in which any of a number of variables might alter the kinds of ratings that one might receive. Each setting has some special characteristics (the home, the school, the club house, the backyard) and these settings obviously bias the kind of report you are going to receive. The important observation is the necessity to be alert to the nature of the trade-off one must make and to be alert to the effect of the testing situation on the behavior that is being observed. The decision that the group reached was that in order to prevent a particular bias from effecting the results one ought to use an array of testing situations that have varying degrees of similarity to the wilderness situation. A variety of social arrangements need to be measured in order to get an accurate appraisal of the degree to which wilderness camping develops self-reliance. The issue becomes even more complicated. Suppose, for example, that a neurotic mother had sent her child to wilderness camping. Yet in reality she had very strong psychological needs to keep the child dependent upon her. In such an instance any attempt in the child to demonstrate self-reliance when he returns home would be discouraged and would be subverted in one fashion or another.

It became obvious to everyone in the group that it might take some time to build a reliable, trustworthy scale of self-reliance and perhaps the first year of research design ought to be one devoted primarily to purifying and organizing the research instruments that one will use in the eventual measurement.

As a general conclusion of the summary of hours spent designing a research problem and observing the difficulties in so doing, probably the most apparent observation was of the complexity of research and the difficulty of doing it. What may have looked to the average person to be a very simple idea that is easily tested turned out to be quite difficult, quite comlicated, and required a substantial degree of sophistication in order to achieve the end product. The general conclusion was that the human brain was still the best instrument of research and that all of these problems were solvable when given enough thought, inquiry, and creativity. Another general conclusion was that it was better to attempt research and to learn the hard way of the difficulties than to throw up one's hands at the complexity of it and just decide that it is not possible to do in the first place. It is obvious that the primary function of a researcher is to ask the right questions. Once these questions are asked, the instrumentation, even though it may prove to be inadequate in the long run, is a simpler task. Asking the right question becomes crucial to the conduct of the entire research. While the members in the group were discouraged about the possibility of proving that self-reliance could be increased by wilderness camping and admitted that this is a cherished thought long held and seldom examined, the enthusiasm of the group for the attempt and for the fun of doing it was such that the broad conclusion reached was that research is important. It is vital to understanding what you are achieving and accomplishing; and if the camping movement is to succeed it must be able to demonstrate in other than a faith and belief kind of way that it has something to offer that is unique in the American cultural experience.

WHAT'S BEING DONE IN CAMP RESEARCH

Selection of Camp Staff

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Directors, parents, and campers agree that the success of a camp is directly proportional to the quality of its counselors. Joy concurred in this belief when she said, "It is a truism that no camp is better than its leaders, regardless of site, equipment, program or objectives." (27, p. 10) She further stated that a counselor must possess a personality which meshes with the needs and desires of children and must also possess the ability to coordinate these in a manner productive for all. In addition, it is not unfounded to expect interchange among the personalities present in a given camp community during a season. It is the recognition of this fact that has led many camp directors and leaders to state that one of the most disconcerting problems they face each year is that of obtaining competent staff for the coming summer. We see this point of view reflected in such statements as those made by Benson and Goldberg that, "For several reasons, the selection and indoctrination of the camp personnel are the camp director's greatest responsibilities." (4, p. 42) We also find support of it by Reimann who said, "The most important and most difficult task facing a camp director is that of recruiting and selecting a competent and well-rounded staff, for it is upon such leadership that the success or failure of the camp depends." (40, p. 113) Furthermore, Doty pinpointed succinctly what might well be considered a focal point for the efforts of camp researchers in this area, with the statement:

> One of the greatest challenges in camping should be to bring the resources of camping and research to bear on this most important problem of counselor selection, through the use of an adequate, revealing application process. (16, p. 86)

The review of research to be presented here will illustrate in overview how the leaders in camping have met and are now meeting this challenge. An attempt will be made to answer four basic questions in terms of research in the area of counselor selection, (1) What have they done? (2) What have they found? (3) What methods and tools of research have they used? and (4) What can be done in the future?

As we begin to consider the selection of staff we find that we must first examine authoritative opinion as to what characteristics and traits are expected in a good staff member -- precisely what are camp directors looking for in a counselor? There are probably as many diverse opinions on this subject as there are camp directors. This fact is substantiated by a conclusion reached by Doty that: "*The best camp counselor is the one who is most effective in meeting camp objectives*. This means that a good counselor in one camp might not be in another." (16, p. 82) However, it is still possible to crystallize and bring into focus certain attributes, skills and abilities which are generally cited by camp leaders as most desirable in camp staff. As far back as 1939 opinions on this subject appeared in the literature. One of these was stated by Gibson, who believed that, "Experience has proven that counselors must be above reproach morally." (19, p. 7) Also that, "Counselors must be good 'practicers' rather than good 'preachers' ..." (19, p. 8) Benson and Goldberg (4), quoting Hendry, stated that the better counselors in comparison with the poorer had executive ability, were thorough, had insight, used cooperative rather than autocratic control, were able to lead the campers, could help campers face issues, could deal intelligently with difficult campers, could extend and enlarge camper's interests and could make constructive contributions at leaders' meetings. Reimann (40) considered first chronological and emotional maturity and educational experience requirements. It is a fact that the majority of the works reviewed cited emotional maturity, love for and interest in children, understanding, and education as of the greatest importance to success in the opinion of each of the authors involved. That camp directors concur in this was substantiated by a study done by Massie (33) in which twenty-two camp directors listed in order of importance to success as a counselor, liking for children, emotional maturity, and ability to work in a group. It was further confirmed by Lundegren (32) in a study in which 102 camp directors cited what they felt was the single most important factor related to the success of a counselor. In order of frequency of mention these traits were (1) love for and interest in children, (2) cooperation or works well with others, (3) emotional maturity, (4) understanding, and (5) ability to adjust. Quite often, the traits most looked for in the prospective counselors for a given camp were reflections of the specific background and philosophy of that camp. For example, Welch (46), who is associated with the YMCA, emphasized spiritual beliefs and a desire to lead campers in a fellowship with God. The Girl Scouts (21) believed that it was important that a good counselor demonstrate tolerance of other races, religions, and nationalities and also possess the ability to work for the good of the whole. The Pacific Camp Directors' Association (6), cited cultural background and a counselor's ability to see and respect a director's vision for camp as high on the list of desirable qualities. Looking at the problem from its reverse aspect, Northway (35) indicated the results of a questionnaire which showed that failure, or lack of success, was caused by treating camp as a summer holiday, courting popularity, and being unable to receive criticism. In summary, the American Camping Association Workshop on Camp Standards has given the following list of traits cited as being most desirable in a counselor:

1. Emotional maturity
2. Good health and vitality
3. Enjoyment of the out-of-doors
4. Liking for children and the ability to understand the needs of campers and the camp ahead of personal desires
5. Ability to work as a member of a group
6. Interest in contributing to the objectives of camp
7. Particular skills and abilities for the specific responsibilities they are to carry
8. Good moral character and integrity
9. Two years of college education or the equivalent in experience significant for camping (11, p. 87)

The foregoing discussion has stated what those people who deal closely with employment of counselors feel are the most salient desirable characteristics to be found in successful camp staff members. What has research done to substantiate these observations and opinions as fact, and how can research point the way to optimum use of techniques and methods of selection of counselors who not only possess these qualities but will demonstrate them in a camp environment?

One of the earliest studies reported was conducted by Verbeck (45) in 1940 and was concerned with the selection, evaluation, and training of the counselors hired by nineteen Columbus, Ohio camp directors. The Otis Test of Mental Ability, the Thurstone Personality Schedule, the Allport Ascendance-Submission Test, and Strong's Vocational Interest Blank were used. No single test was found to distinguish between good and poor counselors, although there were over 100 individual test items which did achieve this discrimination. Verbeck also used an application form, and from the information derived from this concluded that counselors who participated in church activity seemed to make better counselors than those who did not.

In 1942, Pixley (39) devised a prognostic or prediction table to be used in the selection of counselors. This table was based on fifteen factors of a rating scale used by the Pacific Camping Association. Twenty-two camps in the Pacific area were asked to rate 334 subjects. No effort was made to analyze the results on the basis of sex or types of camps, although both sexes and several types of camps were included in the study. The counselors who were rated were classified as a success or failure according to whether or not they were asked to return to the camp another year. The prognostic table was then based on how many successful or unsuccessful counselors there were having the same positive factors. The factors were divided into two categories: background facts, and abilities and characteristics. It was found that in 67 out of 100 cases, counselors with less than four positive attributes were most likely to fail, and counselors with over eight positive factors were most likely to succeed. Pixley also found that, in the group studied, years of experience as a camper had an inverse relationship with success and that the largest number of failures fell in the under twenty-one age group. The author stated that, "on the basis of this table it might be assumed that the more education a counselor has the more likely he would be to succeed." (39, p. 20)

Using 33 boys' and girls' camps in six of the Pacific states, with a total of 236 women and 197 men counselors, DeMarche (9) analyzed 42 factors on application or personal history forms given to successful and unsuccessful camp counselors. Success was determined by a rating scale used by the camp directors. Four factors were found to have significance as correlated with success and were selected for use in a prognostic instrument. These factors were age, school year completed, when attended school last, and the number of seasons as a counselor. DeMarche found little relationship between success and experience as a camper, being active as a group leader, and specific training courses in camping or group work.

The technique used by the counseling and guidance service of the St. Louis YMCA in the selection of camp staff was reported in 1948 by Cooper. (8) Prospective counselors were screened according to their personal, educational, social, and leadership background data and then given four tests. The first of these tests was the Henmon-Nelson Test of intelligence, and from the results of this administration it was recommended that people of below average intelligence should not be employed on a camp staff because they would not be good counselors. The second test used was the Kuder Preference Record. A successful counselor was expected to receive a social service score at the 60th percentile or up, although no indication was given in the research report as to how this point was determined. The Bell Adjustment Inventory, on which particular attention was paid to high scores on the personal and social adjustment scales, was the third test. The last test given was the Allport Study of Values which purports to measure six basic motives of ones personality and philosophy of life. The St. Louis YMCA service looked, in the results of this test, for counselors who scored in the 60th percentile or better on social motive.

Other research reported in 1948 included that done by Liddell (29) with subjects drawn from the Herald Tribune Fresh Air Fund Camps, specifically a camp called, Marks Memorial. The purpose of Liddell's investigation was to evaluate selection, training, and supervision of counselors working in the Tribune camps. The selection procedures were: (1) an application blank which included questions on personal background, leadership and training experience, health, skill proficiency and interest and a statement of personal objectives in camping, (2) three confidential references and (3) an interview. Liddell recommended that attempts be made by directors to secure more counselors who have participated in college camp leadership training courses. It is pertinent to note here, in reference to the suggestion that a prospective counselor be required to state his objectives, that Doty (16) found in his study of an application blank that there was often little correlation between what a counselor said he would do and what he actually did in the camp situation. This finding is applicable to both the stating of objectives and to the stating of hypothetical problem situations. Doty suggested the use of a tool called the subjective biographical question. An example of this type of question was cited as: Describe yourself as a twelve year old -- good things, bad aspirations, and so forth. These questions and their answers were established as valid in discriminating between good and bad counselors by giving them to counselors at the end of the camp season and having experts rate the answers as good or bad. Following this, the counselors were rated as successful or unsuccessful and it was found that their answers to the questions had differentiated between the two groups in terms of so-called good or bad answers. No specific statistics were reported in support of these conclusions.

Schwendinger (42) studied the hiring procedures of a single co-educational camp and followed this with an assessment of the success of the counselors so hired. On the basis of her findings she concluded that, "a combination of work experience and interview gives the best assurance of successful hiring." (42, p. 24)

Gilbert (20) investigated the relationship of certain component parts of standardized tests and characteristics of age, education, and previous camping experience to success as a counselor. Success was determined by the camp directors' ratings and ratings of fellow counselors. Seven boys' camps operating out of New York City were used in this study. Counselors were given a background questionnaire, the Wesman Personnel Classification Test, the Bennett Mechanical Comprehension Test, the Minnesota Personality Scale, and a Counselor Mental Hygiene Test designed by the author. Gilbert concluded that counselors below eighteen years of age should be eliminated, as should those with less than twelve years of school. In regard to the tests used, he suggested that those who scored below 28 on the Personnel Test and 31 on the Mechanical comprehension Test should not be considered for counselor positions. The Minnesota Personality Scale was not found to be a valid test for use in distinguishing the successful from the unsuccessful counselor and the Mental Hygiene Test was too brief to accomplish its purpose. Gilbert also found that the camp counselors studied had an average intelligence at the 82nd percentile for college freshmen.

Contrary to the findings of most other researchers reported here, Ciochine (7), in an analysis of staff selection procedures, concluded empirically that education and age appeared to have little bearing on job performance. She further concluded that two qualifications which did prove of importance in counselor selection were emotional maturity and understanding and acceptance of children. She also stated that leadership training and experience were of secondary importance and of no use without emotional maturity and acceptance of children.

In a report to Recreation Magazine in 1950, Link (30) stated that standards for selection of counselors should include: (1) minimum age: 18 years, (2) experience: one summer at camp or settlement house or a similar experience, and (3) education: one year of college. No statistics were cited.

Through the use of a questionnaire based on the American Camping Association 1950 standards, a survey of characteristics of successful counselors was made by Massie (33) in girls' camps of the Southeastern United States. The study was limited to full counselors of the program staff in both private and organizational camps. Each camp director in the district selected was asked to rate each of his counselors on a five point scale for every characteristic and also to indicate which characteristic was most important to them as directors. Success was determined by whether or not the counselor was rehired by the camp. Rated in this manner were 417 counselors from twenty-two camps. Of this number, 340 counselors were successful and 77 were unsuccessful. The statistical analysis of the data was done by frequency and percentage tabulations and by testing the significance of the difference between mean ratings.

In the Massie study the difference between the mean ratings was statistically significant for the ability to work as a member of a group, liking for children and ability to place needs of children above personal desires and to understand needs of campers, emotional maturity, enjoyment of the out-of-doors (which camp directors did not judge important), particular skills and abilities for a specific job, moral character and integrity, and good health and safety. It is interesting to note that in this study, no statistical significance was found for the item: two years of college or its equivalence in experience, which is contrary to the findings of other studies. No one characteristic was deemed exclusively important for any one camp position.

Research completed in 1953 by Butterworth (15) involved the study of factors implicit in the selection of counselors and of the relationship of the counselor to selected policies and procedures used in the administration of established camps for girls in Texas. Through the use of a questionnaire sent to directors of all of the established girls' camps in Texas, data were gathered regarding general facts about the camp, campers served, the camp's counselors, methods used in employing counselors, provisions made for counselors, reports made by counselors, and the camp program. These data were treated statistically by means of frequency tabulation and computation of percentages. In total, 46 camps participated in the study. Of these, 82.22 per cent used colleges and universities as their main source of counselors. In regard to methods used for investigating prospective counselors, 43 camps, or 97.73 per cent, used a personal interview; 38 camps, or 86.36 per cent, utilized the application blank; 36 camps or 81.82 per cent, employed the use of references; and 26 camps, or 59.09 per cent, reported the use of personal appraisal of prospective counselors by former staff members. It was pertinent to note that less than 7.00 per cent reported the use of interest, personality or skill tests.

The camp directors in the Butterworth study were also asked to indicate personal characteristics they looked for in a counselor. In answer to this question, 100 per cent indicated emotional maturity, enjoyment in living in the out-of-doors and a sincere liking for youth. Ninety per cent of those asked expected their counselors to have a keen sense of the responsibilities involved in their jobs, and to cooperate well with both campers and staff members.

A total of 645 counselors were studied for background data, and of these 61.86 per cent were beyond the second year in college, and 40.07 per cent were college graduates. Of the 120 activity counselors in 29 camps, 50 per cent were 20-25 years of age and all but 10.83 per cent were 19 or over. In a total of 31 camps there were 251 group counselors and of these 170, or 68.31 per cent, were 20 years or older, and in the group activity counselor bracket, 55.87 per were 20 or older. More activity counselors had a college training course than did counselors of the other two groups and over half of the activity counselors were former campers and or counselors. It was not the purpose of this study to investigate whether or not any of these factors were associated with the success of a counselor.

A series of studies was begun at Wayne University in 1955 on camp counselor recruitment and retention. The first of these was completed by Jones (25), who used a questionnaire to gain information on 175 counselors from eight camps in Michigan and 125 non-counselors from the Wayne University student body, in order to compare characteristics of members in each group. Results showed the difference between the groups lay in five main areas. These areas were:

1. Occupation of the head of the family. For counselors, the occupations were mainly those of managers, officials, proprietors, and professional people. For the non-counselor group, the occupations of the fathers were stated as craftsman, foreman, and laborer.
2. Experience as a camper which was higher for the counselor group.
3. Amount of volunteer service given: again higher for the counselor group.
4. The major field of study: a larger per cent of counselors were in education.
5. Group leadership experience.

It was further reported that the counselor group stated that they chose the job because of a liking for the out-of-doors and a liking for children, while the non-counselor group took a job for financial reasons, thus necessitating taking a job with the best remuneration. As may be expected, the members of the non-counselor group had more outside responsibilities than did the members of the counselor group.

Lumpkin (31) made a study of 412 counselors in 24 camps on the Pacific Coast in 1957 to determine the relationship between responses to 240 items on a scale devised by the author which was intended to reveal counselors' attitudes toward campers and the success of these counselors as rated by the DeMarche Scale. Through the use of the chi square technique, Lumpkin found 24 items of the 240 to be significant, with the most significant item bring: "The counselor who could be a leader in group activities." Lumpkin further stated:

> In comparing the responses of the most successful counselors and the least successful counselors, the successful groups tend to reflect a high degree of social and emotional security while the least successful counselors tend to reflect persistent ego-involved attitudes of social and emotional insecurity. (31, p.73)

In 1959, an investigation of the use of biographical data in the selection of staff was made by Yasutake. (47) He used as subjects 234 male counselors from agency camps. Each counselor was rated as successful or unsuccessful and each was administered a questionnaire. From a statistical analysis of the results scoring keys were derived. Yasutake concluded that the more successful counselors were more mature, took an active part in extra-curricular activities, and had a wide range of interests.

The findings of two research projects completed in 1959, although not directly concerned with camp counselors, are pertinent to leadership and therefore applicable in the camp field. The research tools may be regarded as possibilities for use in camp research. The first of these two studies was reported by Rivard (41) and dealt with situational factors affecting leadership at the United States Coast Guard Academy. The Critical Incident Technique was used with graduates of four classes to determine what the cadets thought were performances demonstrating effective leadership. The 1680 incidents collected were analyzed by the author according to content and the ten most critical factors were cited. These factors included such things as:

1. Used tact
2. Obeyed his own rules
3. Helped subordinates
4. Knew his own job well
5. Was honest and fair
6. Volunteered to do extra work
7. Completed work on time
8. Gave reasons for his rules
9. Was aware of the needs of his group
10. Developed teamwork in a group

The second article of research cited was that of Kammeyer (28) who developed an aptitude inventory for community recreation leaders. Through the use of a chi square analysis of responses of 1331 leaders of both sexes ranging on a continuum from excellent to poor, she isolated six significant items which would discriminate between successful and unsuccessful recreation leaders.

These items, expressed in terms of aptitudinal patterns according to behavioral expressions were:

1. Displaying security and the lack of fear in the leadership position.
2. Maintaining a tolerant and flexible attitude toward participants.
3. Demonstrating a lack of fear regarding discipline problems.
4. Desiring to encourage leadership qualities in participants.
5. Being sensitive to and having empathy for the problems of the participants.
6. Accepting the respect of the participants.

Another article of research outside the field of camping, but of significance in an investigation of leadership selection tools was that reported by Gruber in 1960 (23) on personality traits and teaching attitudes. The Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey (GZTS) and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (MTAI) were administered to 35 unsuccessful male teachers and 203 students in physical education who were rated as successful by the judgment of three experts. On the GZTS no difference was found between the means of the test scores for most successful, and unsuccessful teachers, for 88 items discriminating between most successful teachers and students, and 71 items discriminating between least successful teachers and students. The MTAI is purported to measure attitudes to predict how well a subject will get along with his pupils in inter-personal relationships and indirectly how well satisfied he will be with teaching as a profession. Careful examination of items on the MTAI indicate that inferior teachers seem to be insecure socially. In the Gruber study, 14 items on the MTAI discriminated significantly between most and least successful teachers, 52 items discriminated between most successful teachers and students and 47 items discriminated significantly between the least successful teachers and students.

In 1960, a study of the personality traits, self-attitudes and backgrounds of successful and unsuccessful women camp counselors from a representative sampling of camps throughout the United States was conducted by Lundegren. (32) A total of 408 counselors from 42 private camps and 60 agency camps participated in this study. The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, the Kuhn "Who Am I?" Twenty Statements Test of Self Attitudes, and a background questionnaire were used to measure the factors to be studied. Statistical treatment consisted of the use of the analysis of variance technique with the data collected from the administration of the EPPS, chi square applied to the background questionnaire, and the test of significance applied to the data gathered from the "Who Am I?" Test. On the basis of the findings of the study, it was recommended that:

1. The EPPS should not be considered a suitable tool by itself for selection of camp counselors.
2. The camp directors should, on the basis of significant items found, use the following on their background questionnaires: age, education, profession, counselor experience, camp counseling course in college, and leadership positions held.
3. The "Who Am I?" Test not be used in selecting private camp counselors.

4. The "Who Am I?" Test, EPPS, and a background questionnaire be given to prospective agency counselors, particularly if an interview is not possible.

Based on the results of the tests administered, a profile of a typical counselor in each success group in the study was also given.

In recent years, various articles in Camping Magazine have explored the topic of counselor selection and its related facets and, although these articles are not necessarily the results of research, they contain certain pertinent proposals, opinions, practices, and findings of leaders in the camping field and are therefore included in this review.

Oldham (36), in an article written in 1959 on staff references, suggested that the form used for securing these references be designed to meet the specific needs of the camp and that it should include inquiries about characteristics which are musts for successful camper-staff relationships, camper development, and staff to staff relationships in that particular camp. In addition to these, it should include qualities which would be an asset in any individual, such as leadership ability and emotional maturity. She further suggested that the respondent check not only the strongest positive characteristics of the applicant, but also those qualities in which the prospective counselor needs most assistance in development.

The preparation of counselor selection aids was discussed by Friedman (17) in an article written in 1960. He proposed a technique in which a camp director, through the use of information gained regarding the attitudes of those counselors whom he knows to be successful, might help him to select future counselors whom he could expect to be successful. To do this, Friedman suggested that a list of 100 or so items related to attitude be compiled. An example of such an item might be: "Campers should be seen and not heard." The prospective counselor would then answer these items before he were hired. Following the camp season the answers of the ten best and ten worst counselors would be sorted according to those answers which best distinguished between them. If this were done several years in a row the resultant attitude questionnaire could be used as a guide in hiring.

Golburgh and Penney (22), in a discussion of characteristics of a successful camp counselor concur with other authors in citing that the interview, although a well used technique, has certain inadequacies which the authors feel can be supplemented by the use of psychometric techniques. These techniques plus the interview should reveal something about seven specific qualities Golburgh and Penney consider most crucial for counselors in their interpersonal relations with campers. These characteristics included: empathy, the manner in which the candidate expresses anger or irritation, good physical skill in at least one thing, sense of humor, responsibility, enthusiasm, and a category they term self-realization, or a check on whether or not their personal life is in order.

Most of the research completed and articles written have emphasized concern with the general activity counselor in camp. However, in 1961, Geal (18) proposed consideration of the qualifications necessary for success as a camp director specifically in terms of interests, aptitudes and personality traits desirable in a prospective director. He suggested that research be done with several hundred reputedly successful camp directors through the use of a battery of occupational measurements in order to isolate qualities present in these successful directors under the areas mentioned above. He further expressed a belief that camp directors should be able to meet a specified professional standard, such as doctors do, before being permitted to start a camp.

The Cooperative Committee for Camp Counselors prepared, a number of years ago, an application form for camp counselors which appears in full in Benson and Goldberg. (4) This form was subjected to analysis in a follow-up study with 259 counselors in eight camps reported by Dimock in 1931 (13) which showed that although some of the items were positively correlated with success, they could not be used to predict whether or not a camp counselor would be successful. Due to the fact that the application form is used so extensively in business and is recommended as a selection tool, it was felt that further research should be done with the application as a tool for counselor selection. Therefore, in 1960, the Montreal YMCA (13) experimented with a form that included background data, an autobiographical sketch in which the applicant was requested to tell something about himself, his family, and his interest in camping, and problem questions on camping with multiple choice answers. This follow-up was reported by Dimock. (13)

Contrary to the findings of other studies, age, education, experiences and skills showed little relationship to success as a camp counselor. Similarly, the autobiographical sketch and the problem questions showed significant differences between answers of successful and unsuccessful counselors. The results of this present study, then, appeared to indicate that the application form served its best function as a preliminary screening device and was not usable as a predictive instrument.

The Child Service League, Incorporated, of New York City developed an Interest and Training Need Inventory for camp counselors. As reported by Astor (3) in Camping Magazine, counselors were asked to rate themselves in regard to competency and a felt need for further training on a wide variety of items. The author felt that the answers received from these questions indicated a great deal about weaknesses and strengths in the respondents self-concepts. For example, a candidate just graduated from high school who rated himself highly on everything and claimed to need help with nothing may have shown a certain lack of realism, whereas a person with experience and good references who said he had few competencies and needed help with everything displayed the same flaw in achieving a realistic self-concept. The proposals in this article and the others preceding it give food for thought on future research in the camping field.

In addition to research completed, articles published, and books written there remains to be considered research and projects in progress or in the planning stage, and methods of selection used by regional groups which are not available for general use and distribution. In the latter group, which may bear investigation by other camp personnel, is the test battery used by the California Employment Service (43), developed by its southern regional research director, which does not include any personality testing, and which is used only as one of the items in a screening procedure.

A study in progress and nearing completion at this time is that conducted by Perry (38) with 396 male and female counselors from 21 private and agency camps in Southern California and which was purported to investigate certain factors of personality and temperament and their relationship with success. The tests selected to measure these traits were: (1) the Structured Objective Rorschach Test, (2) a sentence completion test devised for the study, (3) the Kuder Preference Record Vocational Form C, and (4) a structured autobiographical data questionnaire. An interpretation by the author of the findings of this study revealed that there did exist some relationship between success and many of the items on the autobiographical questionnaire. Those items showing in a chi square analysis, the highest and most consistent relationship with success were: (1) previous camper or counselor experience, (2) number of camps in which the subject worked as a counselor, (3) length of pre-camp training, (4) number of camp activities proficient in and interests listed, and (5) mother's employment status. Fifteen other items showed significant differences between success groups. The SORT showed some significant findings, particularly with the women's and agency camp groups, but due to the fact that the findings were limited and that a highly trained person is needed to analyze the results accurately, it was felt that the SORT had limited use in the camp counselor application process. The author further concluded that the sentence completion test showed promise as an instrument for gathering information related to success from a prospective counselor, particularly if it were used in combination with other measures. Finally, the findings from the administration of the Kuder Preference Record did not support the hypothesis that vocational interests were related to success in camp counseling. Perry concluded that camp counseling success is a result of the "interaction of a multitude of complex factors and should be defined within the frame of reference of the particular camp setting."

The final item reviewed for this paper was a summary of proposed research by Steele (44) which has as its stated purpose the development of an inventory to be used to predict success of applicants seeking jobs as counselors at camps which stress character development. The author proposes to: (1) use the Chingachgook Counselor Rating Scale, or a variation thereof, to determine counselor effectiveness, and (2) determine counselor attitudes and construct an inventory to measure these attitudes in a sample of effective and ineffective counselors in camps emphasizing character development. The author then proposes to administer his inventory and revise it in final form on the basis of the findings of that administration. The attitude inventory will be used eventually, if it is successful, as a part of the camp counselor application process in the specified type of camp.

Summary

As long as camps have been in existence, those people most concerned with the running of them have found of greatest significance to their success the selection and retention of good counselors. To this end, much time, thought, and discussion has been invested in finding ways and means to ascertain the best methods available to secure competent and successful staff for hundreds of summer camps throughout the country. In the pursuance of this goal, those characteristics felt to be most desirable in a counselor were investigated by several authors and finally summarized most succinctly by the American Camping

Association Workshop on Camp Standards, and substantiated by subsequent research. With these as a guide as to what directors were looking for in a candidate for a counselor position, researchers proceeded to attempt to discover the best tools to use in determining whether or not a prospective counselor possessed these traits, and in the process, whether or not candidates who were successful in their jobs actually had the traits which leaders in the field, by empirical means, had agreed were most necessary.

A variety of psychometric techniques have been administered to camp counselors to test their feasibility for use as prediction devices. Included in the tests so used were the Otis Test of Mental Ability, the Thurstone Personality Schedule, the Allport Ascendance-Submission Test, Strong's Vocational Interest Blank, the Bell Adjustment Inventory, the Allport Study of Values, the Wesman Personnel Classification Test, the Minnesota Personality Scale, the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, the Kuhn "Who Am I?", the Structured Objective Rorschach Test, and a sentence completion test. Of these tests, the following showed some positive correlation with success and may warrant further investigation: the Henmon-Nelson Intelligence Test, the Kuder Preference Record (in one study, not in another), the Allport Study of Values, the Wesman Personnel Classification Test, the Bennett Mechanical Comprehension Test, the Kuhn "Who Am I?" Test, the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, and the sentence completion test. The others did not distinguish in any conclusive way, in the situation in which they were used, between successful and unsuccessful counselors. It was interesting to note that in several studies, different items showed significance with the agency group in many instances but not with the private camp group.

Several experimenters devised their own tools or devices for measuring personal traits or characteristics. One reported the use of a self-constructed prognostic table. Gilbert devised a counselor hygiene test. DeMarche produced a rating scale which has been used rather frequently and Lumpkin constructed a scale designed to measure counselor attitudes toward campers. The subjective biographical question has been used with success whereas the autobiographical sketch was not successful, when used, in distinguishing between good and bad counselors. One organization included in their application process an Interest and Training Need Inventory which was satisfactory to them, and the California Employment Service administers its own battery of tests which is exclusive of a personality test.

Outside the camping field, but in situations closely allied with the selection of leaders, the critical incident technique has been used with good results, and the Kammeyer aptitude inventory has shown possibilities as a tool to be used to discriminate between success groups among recreation leaders, and may provide some guideposts for a similar study with camping leaders.

Look to the Future

In recent years, progress has been made in research in counselor selection, as it has been in research in camping in general. The quality of the investigations conducted have improved immeasurably, and must continue to do so. Sound statistical techniques must be utilized to substantiate findings leading to dependable conclusions. Sufficient controls must be kept on the experiment to avoid invalidating the data through too loose a design, and the formats of the studies pursued must meet acceptable experimental criteria. It has been stated that the most pressing problem in selection is the development of an adequate application process which will indicate enough about a candidate to classify him, without much question, as likely to suceed, barring extraneous circumstances. Sociometric techniques have shown some promise and should be investigated further through the use of such instruments as the Kuhn "Who Am I?", the sentence completion test or other measures of self-concepts and attitudes, the critical incident technique to establish more information on the quality of leadership, and through the possible construction of an aptitude inventory for camp leaders similar to the one already devised for recreation leaders. Perhaps even role playing has a place in proposed research, and Perry suggests that more be done with research on the individual, in addition to group research. The subjects for this research should be drawn from a wide geographical area in order to get the most representative sampling possible.

Studies which have been completed have laid the groundwork on which to build and their findings should be used as a foundation on which the structure of future research may be based. The threads of initial discovery, both positive and negative, should not be lost by treating each piece of research as unique and apart, but all the findings should be interwoven to give a clearer, larger picture. Suggestions made by leaders in the field regarding possible research on various aspects of the problem must be taken as a challenge and explored. For example, why not conduct a study on the qualities found in a good director, or construct a camp counselor attitude inventory, building on the findings of those who have pioneered in the area, and borrowing from other fields research findings useful to camping? Have we discovered the best interview techniques and the best type of question to use in the interview, or could research do more to refine this tool? There is a conflict of opinion over the efficacy of the subjective biographical question on the application blank. What can research do to clarify the worth of the continued use of such a question? Do we read each piece of research with an eye to what implications this might have for future research, or do we just set it aside as something interesting, with no thought as to what we could do to augment the information by future research of our own. Do we let the burden of research rest solely with the graduate schools of the country or do we see research as an integral part of the functions of all members of a camp oriented community?

As we look to the future, we must ask ourselves these questions and many more. The continued growth of camping research in both quality and quantity, and with it the rising respect of educators throughout the country for such research, can only be accomplished through the concerted effort of research-minded leaders in the field. If the selection of the right counselor for a camp is the single most important job of a camp director, then each camp director should have in his hands the best device for making that selection successfully. Good research may be able to make such a device a reality. This, then, is part of the challenge for the future.

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Measurement of Camper Attitudes

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The intangible values a child derives from a camping experience -- this topic seems to be a favorite within camping circles. The third dimensional learnings, or attitudes acquired in the camp situation, have become of interest to the camp director in promoting his camp to parents, to the counselor in evaluating his work with the campers, and to the parents in considering the change taken place in Johnny upon his return from camp. These and similar reasons are why people engaged in camping research have attempted to provide suitable methods for the evaluation of attitudinal development of the child. One will also find many people in the field who are still evaluating gains made by the campers on only the first or second levels of learning. Recently I listened to a camping administrator at an A.C.A. conference report in all seriousness that the only method of evaluation of effect of program on campers was simply to count the attendance record, awards received, and length of the waiting list the following summer. We, as people actively engaged in camping research, have a long way to go to interpret the area of attitudinal research to those in the field.

Let us stop a moment and make sure we have some agreement as to what attitudes are. We will use a typical college sophomore's definition here, since they tend to be the most learned in this theoretical field; and say an attitude is a tendency to respond to a certain object, class of objects, or stimuli. Notice that it is a tendency to respond; not the response or behavior itself. Positive attitudes tend to produce desired behavior patterns, which we strive for in camping. Yet positive behavioral patterns do not necessarily mean that positive attitudes are held by the child. The situation in camp might be the determining factor. If negative attitudes are held, continuing positive behavior cannot be assured. The behavioral response of the child is sometimes referred to as non-verbal expression of an attitude. When the camper is asked what his attitude is, his response is called a verbal expression of his attitude. Studies in camping have been made in both verbal and non-verbal behavioral expressions of attitudes.

Certain basic assumptions must be made, these being the bases for the research presented in this area. First, attitudes are indirectly measurable. They cannot be directly observed but can be measured by indirect techniques. Second, specific attitudes can be a part of the objectives of camp, can be planned for as any other objective, can be taught by direct or indirect techniques, and can be evaluated. In return the camper is capable of learning attitudes in his camping experience. Attitudes are not learned in one sitting, nor is it possible to use the lecture method of teaching. However, it is possible to teach in this area and expect learning to take place on the part of the child, rather than waiting for the chance situation.

Among the early studies attempting to measure the character development in campers was the well-known study written up in the book Camping and

Character by Dimock and Hendry. (2) The study took place in the late twenties and early thirties and parallels Doty's (3) recent study in that the whole camp situation was centered around developing research methods in the area of measurement of character development of campers. Dimock and Hendry recognized at that time the two major reasons for attempting to measure more specifically camper development, adding a third reason which was not considered as important: (1) to support the claims made by administrators, (2) to improve program and methods, and (3) for evaluation of leaders. The techniques used in the study included a general case study approach which was made possible by the fact that the campers stayed for long periods of time. The specific technique developed for measurement were gathering background information on campers, a behavior frequency rating scale which rated socially desirable behavior on a seven point scale, and a behavior observation record recording behavior that actually took place. All of these were used in connection with a variety of other borrowed techniques like intelligence tests, emotional tests, and examinations by specialists. The study also used some of the paper and pencil tests developed by Watson (17) in 1925 to measure the gains in certain knowledges from a camping experience.

Certain generalized knowledges were shown by this early study. It was shown statistically, in a rather rough mathematical way, that the better counselors produced the higher gains in positive development in campers. Later Doty found that this was not always the case. They also showed that the older boys in camp tended to make less positive gains than the younger boys. The report included the many weaknesses in the methods of counselor ratings of behavior. For instance, the problem of the best time for the initial rating and the problem of the total group as affecting behavior of the individual were included.

Two other early studies which were fairly similar in method followed the one reported in Camping and Character: one by Newsletter (11) which was quite similar and one by Jenny (8) emphasizing the effects of popularity and personality on group acceptance. The general characteristics of the first studies on this area may be summarized as follows: A very broad approach was taken with each study involving many different aspects, the campers studied were usually those who stayed over an extended period of time, the case study approach was used with additional techniques developed to make observations and data more concrete and measurable, the techniques were time consuming on the part of the staff and the staff needed to be well trained to use the techniques, the number of tests to which the campers were exposed were numerous, the techniques developed were mostly behavior observation techniques studying the nonverbal behavior type of attitude of the child.

The next set of studies that were reported in the field of camper attitudes began in approximately 1950. These were considerably different from the initial studies, probably because most of them were done as degree requirements.

A preliminary report of one independent study by Lewin (10) was included in the special camping issue of The Nervous Child periodical in 1947. The study used two different types of camps. One had a child-centered program, which concentrated on counseling toward attitudinal objectives; and one had an adult controlled program, which was not concerned with attitudinal objectives.

The campers were homogeneous with respect to home background, I.Q.s, and number of years of experience at camp. A form of the Likert type attitude scale measuring attitudes toward parents, school, and friends was administered within two weeks before camp, within two weeks after camp, and three months after camp. Validity and reliability coefficients of the scale were not computed. Statistical procedures were not exact; however, the conclusions stated that the child-centered camp had more positive gains in attitude and less loss of gains over the three month period.

Three masters theses dealing with campers' attitudes were completed during this time. In 1949 Rogers (13) made use of the Bogardus Social Distance Scale and measured the attitudes of girl campers toward inter-racial camping. Rose (14) studied the attitudes of children who attended one year of camp and who did not return the second year. The study used the interview technique checking what were termed the surface attitudes of not only the child but also of the parents of the children. The questionnaire technique was used by Healey (6) in attempting to set up the ideal camp program for maximum contribution for child development. The ideal program was based upon what the majority of the responding directors did in their camp programs. Good child development principles then became the ones that were currently adopted by the majority of the administrators in the field.

Three doctoral dissertations which were related to campers' attitudes were completed in 1960. Hunt's study (7) used two standardized tests with proven reliability and validity; the Gordon Personal Profile and the Gordon Personal Inventory. The standardized tests were used, rather than an unproven measurement technique, to measure more accurately the changes in behavior from the beginning to the end of the camp experience. No statistically significant differences were found. Stack (16) studied, by use of sociometric techniques, the attitudes students developed from a week's camping experience. Robichaux (12) used the questionnaire technique to study counselors' attitudes as predicators of campers' attitudes toward the Junior 4-H camp program.

Richard S. Doty's book, The Character Dimension of Camping, presented the most complete study in this area in recent years. His report, with which you are all probably familiar, presented his findings after ten years of experimenting with character development of campers. He used a variety of techniques to measure progress of attitude development, finding more success with two specific techniques, these paralleling the techniques used by Dimock and Hendry. His behavior rating technique was called the Leader's Progressive Appraisal. It used a seven point scale. Counselors used the scale three times during the two week period with changes being recorded as "some" when there was movement within one box on the scale, "considerable" when there was movement from one box to the next, and "marked" when there was movement over the two boxes. Results of the scales showed that there were some campers who made no gains, some who regressed, and yet the majority of the campers made some positive gains in the two week period. The Leader's Observation Report was the technique which accompanied the rating scale, both instruments refined by Doty to the point where they are reliable and valid if used properly. The observation report helped the counselor to observe the behavior of the child, record exactly what happened rather than opinion, analyze which types of behavior are related to the attitude object under question, and analyze which type of behavior indicate progress or regress. A series of these observational records can be analyzed and progression, regression, or no change measured. Doty also experimented with a variety of situational tests which attempted to measure the verbal attitude of the campers. Anonymous replies were not used; consequently, the results from the tests indicated that children tend to give the so-called approved answers which did not correspond to their actual behavioral patterns.

A study closely related to Doty's was started by the Character Research Project of the Minneapolis YMCA. The study is being directed by James Hardy. The first report was published last year following the completion of the 1961 season. Hardy refined the Leader's Progressive Appraisal Form to a five point scale, calling it now the Counselor Progressive Appraisal. He also used a Critical Incident Form for observations of actual behavior. He used a Who Would technique which was completed by the campers at the beginning and end of the camping experience. In this form each of the attitude areas was presented in a situation followed by a question for the campers to answer. They were to choose which of the campers in the cabin, including the camper himself, would fit the description. They were to make a first, second, and third choice. The changes as seen by the peer group could then be measured. These changes were then used to validate the Counselor Progressive Appraisal Form where there were campers with markedly changed attitudes. These camper completed forms were consistent for the majority of the marked cases. The counselor ratings also reconfirmed the fact that the most gains in attitude were made by the youngest campers with a tapering off as the age of the camper increases.

Both Doty's and Hardy's studies have given administrators and leaders in the field of camping a sound method for deciding upon certain attitudinal objectives, for planning for maximum development along these attitudinal objectives, for the actual teaching of these attitudes to children, and for certain measurement techniques for determining behavioral patterns which express the non-verbal attitudes of the child. The practical methods developed, which are focused on specific attitudes learned, are of help in meeting the first reason outlined by Dimock and Hendry for measuring the attitudes developed by the campers -- that of being able to justify our claims of character education to the parents of campers.

There has been almost no research done in the field attempting to measure the effect of different programming methods on the positive attitude gains made by the total camper group. The methods described above are of little help in attempting measurement of attitude in relation to method. This appears to be a separate problem requiring a different approach. Dimock and Hendry listed it as being of major importance, yet we have only begun to deal with it on a research basis.

The methods used to study a total group of campers in relation to attitudinal progress resulting from different programming methods are quite different from the methods used to study the campers as individuals in relation to personal gains. Counselor bias will rule out the use of the counselor rating techniques, and methods using camper judgments need to be anonymous to get a truthful response. The most successful use of a camper self-rating attitude scale seems to be, not in checking on growth toward an attitude of each individual camper, but in checking on the development of attitudes of a certain group of campers in relationship to the effect of different program methods. An exploratory study using eleven different organizational camps has been completed in this area. The situational-response attitude scale, which is a variation of the summated rating type or the Likert type attitude scale, was used. The reliability of the scale was shown by the split-half method and validity by the interview method. Statistically significant differences were found in the total group of campers and in four of the separate camps in the form of a regression of attitude. The scale was centered around the campers' attitude toward program experiences indigenous to the natural environment. The study shows a method of measuring total camper development toward a specific attitude area. This total group measurement could be used efficiently by staff members in checking upon their effectiveness with a camper group or the effects of different program methods.

A second study is currently underway which will use two parallel forms of the Likert type scale. A scale like this can be made to measure campers' attitudes toward any attitudinal objective that one wishes to measure. This second study will use the same attitude objective as the exploratory study. The pilot testing on the scale will take place this summer (1963) in the camp situation. Two program methods, basically quite similar, will be alternated during different sessions of the camp season, with the counselors remaining a constant factor. A control group, which will be a camp not having an outdoor related objective, will be used to test the hypothesis that greater gains are made by camps which emphasize a particular objective. Differences between the two program methods within the same camp will be studied to see if slight variations in two basically approved methods yield statistically significant results. Two summers from now the scale will be cross-validated in its final form in ten different camps to check its practicality in an ordinary camp situation.

Certain statistical procedures become important in dealing with the Likert type attitude scale. The method of item analysis is different from the methods used in a regular multiple choice written exam. The test administration must take into account the fact that the results are dependent upon the administrator's being able to encourage a truthful response from the camper. Validity coefficients by the interview technique tend to be nothing more than correlating one possibly fallible instrument with another. Construct validity is becoming a more accepted technique by the psychologists in determining validity of an attitude scale. Finally, the data is in the form of an ordinal scale which does not allow the researcher to use parametric techniques for determining the significance of difference between two groups. A non-parametric technique for related samples is more proper for use with this type of data. There are a variety of methods in this group with the Wilcoxin test one that is used more frequently by social scientists.

In summary, the research completed in the area of measuring growth and development of campers' attitudes has largely been a search for effective methods of measurement. The counselor rating devices have been refined to the point where they are of use in a case study approach to the campers as an individual. One limitation in using only this one technique in measurement of attitudes is that the behavior observed might not be a true indication of the true attitude of the child, for the situation might not be conducive to a true behavioral response. The limitation of counselor bias is, of course, obvious.

The refined methods do, however, have value in the total evaluation of attitudinal development of the child.

There is a great deal of need for further research on the verbal attitude techniques by use of camper self-rating scales. If techniques could be developed where an anonymous response was not necessary to produce a truthful response, this technique could be combined with the counselor rating techniques to have a complete picture of the child's attitude. These techniques can also, as we have pointed out, be of use in checking effectiveness of leadership and program methods.

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Site Management

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Dr. van der Smissen has asked me to discuss research pertinent to management of the recreation site.

With your permission, and with the hope that this discussion will be more meaningful, may I first describe our Forest Service recreation research organization, or objectives, and then highlight some results dealing with the forest recreation site and its use.

At the present time, we have 22 recreation research scientists located at 8 Forest Experiment Stations. By disciplines, the group includes 7 silviculturists, 7 forest economists, 4 sociologists, 2 wildlife biologists, and 2 plant ecologists. In addition, there is at least an equal number of Forest Service scientists in our other research divisions -- entomologists, pathologists, economists -- working on forestry problems critically important to forest recreation.

Our research objectives are to obtain sound information that will help the forest administrator, the land manager, and the recreation planner:

1. Provide and improve the recreation opportunity through a better understanding of the recreationist's needs and a better understanding of the forest's needs.
2. Maintain and protect natural features from damage or destruction through prolonged heavy use..

3. Provide biological, physical, economic, and social criteria for selecting, developing, and managing recreation areas.
4. Coordinate recreation use with other demands on forest resources--timber, range, water, and wildlife.

Within these objectives, our current recreation research studies car be grouped into two broad categories -- biological and physical studies, and economic and social studies.

Biological and Physical Studies

Many so called "natural areas" are natural areas because they are undisturbed. We do not need many studies to determine that recreation sites become tired and depleted by heavy concentrated use. We do, however, need to know the extent of use (carrying capacity) a site can take, which site conditions and which plants are more durable, and what measures will help rehabilitate worn areas.

A study of vegetation and soils in the Sierra Nevada is showing that 70 per cent of the campgrounds are deteriorating faster than Nature is rebuilding them. The herbaceous and shrubby understory is usually depleted. Litter is often worn out and washed away. Soils are bare, compacted and more subject to erosion. Forty and fifty year-old trees near heavy used sites averaged only 30 inches in height and one inch in diameter. Natural replacement of trees and shrubs has had little opportunity to get started and planted trees seldom survived. However, spiny shrubs, such as mountain whitehtorn, often provide effective screening between campsites and also protect tree seedlings of desirable species.

A related study in the southern Appalachians is showing that the more fertile sites can better withstand trampling, and the vegetation on these sites is more thrifty and less subject to insect attacks and disease. Hardwood species, such as hickory, persimmon, sycamore, ash and beech are more resistant than conifers, with the exception of shortleaf pine and hemlock; conifers were much more subject to disease and insect attach. Plants in the Heath family, such as wild azalea, rhododendron and mountain laurel, are important understory species because of their ability to withstand heavy, sustained use.

Where their objective was timber production, for years foresters have endeavored to maintain a forest with a closed tree-crown canopy and thereby discourage an understory growth of competitive vegetation. This is fine, of course, if there is little or no disturbance on the forest floor. However, when the floor is subjected to heavy recreation use, the effect of the overstory becomes very important. With a dense overstory canopy, the percentage of bare ground encloses. This is accompanied by increased root exposure, increased soil eroision and a decreased capacity for the soil to receive and store water. Now we are finding a useful tool in the reverse application of this knowledge on recreation sites. By taking out some of the overstory trees, the reduction in tree-crown canopy permits more light to reach the forest floor, desirable ground level vegetation is stimulated and increased, and a better hydrologic condition in the soil is attained.

An exploratory study was made in Pennsylvania to test the effect of fertilization in maintaining and rehabilitating worn sites. Briefly, fertilization increased the volume on lightly trampled vegetation, but had no apparent effect on heavily trampled areas.

A circular slide rule for estimating the tolerance and durability of understory vegetation was developed. At a given site, by "plugging in" (1) the per cent of low growing vegetation (grasses and shrubs), (2) the percentage of shade, and (3) the weight of low vegetation in the absence of trampling, the slide rule provides an estimated weight of low vegetation that will survive trampling.

Regarding recreation facilities, a subject we hope will need only minor research emphasis, we are completing perhaps our most "down-to-earth" study. Our fellows at Warren, Pennsylvania, developed a kerosene flame device which when placed in the air vent stack of a pit toilet, generates a flame-actuated convection current that effectively removes odors.

Economic and Social Studies

More campgrounds are needed. More picnic grounds and other recreation areas are needed. Biological studies of soils and vegetation will help provide guidelines for site selection, but this isn't enough. Site selection, and recreation management decisions and investments can be on a sounder basis when we know more about the recreation visitors themselves -- their needs and desires. How many and when? How long do they stay? What are their preferences and why? What do they do when they get there? What is their impact on other forest resources?

To begin with, we need to do a much better job of counting these people. Frankly, our present systems for measuring recreation use leave much to be desired. Our overall totals are probably very reasonable -- and point up the impact, which I am sure is no surprise to you people. In 1940, the National Forests received 16 million recreation visits; last year (1962) there were 113 million. Our estimates become weaker when we try to determine man-hours or man-days, or periods of use.

In California we have been testing methods of measuring the amount and pattern of use in Sierra Nevada recreation sites.

Self-counting systems, such as registration and permits are quite accurate but they need close or full-time supervision. Direct counting, by actual counts, or by camera or TV is also accurate, but expensive. Indirect counts, by such means as ski tow ticket sales, tally devices which will count restroom door openings, or highway traffic counters give good estimates of the numbers of recreationists, but technique refinements are needed to learn how long these people stay and what they do.

In a New England study on the White Mountain National Forest, we are finding we can relate by ratio and regression the number of campers in unsupervised campgrounds (campgrounds where a family simply drives in and camps) to the number in supervised campgrounds (campgrounds where fees are charged or where registration is required). The study showed that a relatively small tally of the numbers in unsupervised campgrounds provided an estimate within four per cent of the true figure for total season use on all the campgrounds on the forest.

In the Northwest and in the Lake States, we are measuring recreation use in wilderness areas. Some of the early results are interesting. In Oregon, a study testing six varieties of unmanned registration stations placed along wilderness trails reveals that 91 per cent of the summer visitors were Oregonians or were accompanied by Oregonians, who walked into the area in groups of 2 to 5, stayed just for the day, and returned to their homes less than 100 miles away.

One-third of the visitors were under 16 years of age. There was very little vandalism at the registration stations. Cooperation in registering was excellent -- except for elk hunters. Almost none of these hunters registered. We are now carrying this study forward with a questionnaire study to get better acquainted with the wilderness visitors, their backgrounds, and their interests.

In Minnesota's Boundary Waters Canoe Area, we are finding the number of visits per year is considerably higher than had been estimated by older measurement systems. Total man-days use, however, is less than previous estimates because the average length of stay is shorter. Similar to the Oregonians, a large number of visitors stay on the area's fringes (in motels and hotels) and enter it by day for sightseeing and fishing. This substantiates Tocher's Utah study in which he remarked that more and more our urbanized citizen is accustomed to and wants modernized conveniences. One yet to be answered enigma here: Why are visitors highly concentrated in some places, while other attractive areas equally accessible are seldom visited?

We are finding that Rocky Mountain hunters prefer undeveloped campgrounds. In 1961, only 9 per cent of the hunters in 1,791 camps studied in Colorado and Wyoming used specially developed hunter camps; 24 per cent used existing campgrounds or picnic sites; the remaining 67 per cent used undeveloped hunter camps. Three-fourths of the campers used tents and stayed an average of five days.

The traditional campfire, incidentally, seems to have less appeal to the hunter -- 58 per cent of the hunters used a wood or gasoline stove for both cooking and warming.

A study of the use of picnic facilities in Pennsylvania indicates that picnickers seldom use tables more than 250 feet from a parking area. Even under extremely crowded conditions, tables beyond 400 feet were not used. The visitors would spread a blanket between two occupied tables rather than walk the distance.

In the high mountains of northeastern Utah, the Intermountain Station is exploring the idea of expanding the recreation opportunity by providing "pint-size" primitive units easily traversed on foot -- a "micro-wilderness". The objective is to make the entire perimeter of such an area readily accessible. Then, with an adequate system of trails and maps, one may hike reasonably short distances to surroundings just as wild and lovely as those in the center of a large wilderness. If successful, the "micro-wilderness" can broaden the recreation opportunity and lessen the pressure on highly developed areas.

The question is frequently raised as to what would be the effect of widespread forest recreation development on other forest resources. An economic study of the impact of recreation development upon timber production was made on 3 dissimilar National Forests in California -- one within easy access for 8 million southern Californians (San Bernardino National Forest), one moderately accessible (Sierra National Forest), and one far removed from population centers (Modoc National Forest). It was determined that the recreation capacity of the three study forests could be increased 1000 per cent yet the sustained yield timber production capacity would be reduced only 13 per cent.

We are just beginning to explore the recreation resources and opportunities on small woodlands in the 6 central states. Twenty per cent of our Nation's people live in these 6 states, and 92 per cent of the forest land is privately owned -- four-fifths in small ownerships. The recreation resource on these small woodlands is virtually untapped, owner attitudes are unknown, and income possibilities are unassessed. Our first studies are planned to explore recreation supply and demand, costs and benefits, and attitudes of small woodland owners toward development of recreation resources.

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Administrative Programming

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Do We Need Research?

As a boy in Europe, I eagerly read books and articles by the pioneer of American camping, Don Beard. On my first trip to the USA as a counselor of YMCA Camp Brooklyn, I had the opportunity to visit Don Beard Camp in Pennsylvania. It was a rugged camp. The boys built their own cabins and other buildings. The discipline was strict. I was present at the lowering of the flag in the evening. The boys stood at attention in perfect formation. Don Beard appeared with all his badges, a cannon blasted, the bugle sounded, the boys were tired. A boy in my cabin who attended Don Beard's Camp in the previous year complained that he lost weight and it was rough. Don Beard probably had no college degree and knew little about research. His camp probably would not qualify according to ACA standards, but he had experience and common sense and, I think, for many boys his camp was a tremendous experience.

Many a good camp director has run his camp on common sense and experience and has done a good job. But times are changing. Dietitions pour over our menus and tell us what to feed the boys to have a balanced diet. Health inpectors check our kitchens, water supply and sewer, and tell us what facilities we have to have. Educators flanked by psychologists and sociologists come and tell us theories and methods on how to organize and run our program. They say that what they tell us to do is based on research and studies.

In 1962 at the Seattle World's Fair in the Science Building, visitors were taken through a room where one could get a headache. Balls were rolling uphill. Short lines were actually longer than the long ones. Hills became holes. This was to shake our belief in common sense. When this was done it was shown that instead of relying on common sense, we should rely on research and science.

The purpose of research is to analyze, to predict and to control our environment. Stuart Chase summed up well the use of research as follows:

> Today the scientific method is universally applied.... It is the only method yet discovered which produces knowledge that stays put, at least until a closer fit to reality is found. Sometimes I think of scientific achievements as a storehouse with many well-filled shelves, their content neatly classified and ready for use by any qualified student. An engineer could not build a bridge without going to the storehouse for the equations of stress and strain and the properties of the steel and cement he plans to use. A doctor could not write a prescription without referring to the storehouse. (1)

Also in camping we have arrived at the same conclusion by stating:

> The foundation of any progressive movement is research -- basic and applied research. The camping movement today is being challenged to prove its value more than "the hunches of those who believe in camping". (2)

Basic or Applied Research?

The purpose of basic research is to make a contribution to basic knowledge. It seems that camps would be a heaven for studies of interaction group structure, experimentation of methods, etc., since the participants are isolated from outside influences, and can be observed and experimented with twenty-four hours a day as in a laboratory. Here are two examples of basic research done in camps:

1. Muzaref Sherif made an experiment in Social Psychology by breaking up friendship groups and assigning boys to other groups. The program was designed to create hostility. Soon the boys disliked their old friends and developed loyalty to new friends. Later methods were used to decrease hostility. (3) The study contributes to the understanding of tension.
2. Otto Larsen studied the flow of communication in camp. He found that the less popular boys are spreading rumors because they feel that by doing so they can gain higher status. (4)

No doubt the studies are a valuable contribution to knowledge, but what can a camp director do with them? He probably will read them, put them on a shelf and say, "Quite interesting, I did not know this."

Basic research is glamorous. Who knows, one may discover in human relations a "Newton's law of gravity" or an "Einstein's theory of relativeity". Therefore, many researchers look down on applied research, which uses the knowledge gained by basic research but concentrates on engineering to evaluate a product, to suggest changes, to find new methods and to make a better product.

Applied research could provide a camp director with information of how camp objectives have been achieved, how successful are the campers and counselors in different areas of camping, how healthy is the economy of the camp, what the morale of the camp is, etc. Probably the camp director would read the report, keep it on his desk and use the information provided for planning his next camp season.

Here are some pitfalls which endanger research:

1. Some think that they can do research without having the necessary training; the result usually is unreliable and misleading. Research, even if it looks simple, has to be based on experience, theory and sound research methods which have to be learned.
2. In human relations research, there are some unqualified persons and companies offering to do research. They can make a seemingly sound presentation on a subject, not understandable to laymen. The customer should understand what the researcher does and why.
3. Often researchers are not told what answers are sought. It is just like ordering blueprints for a house. You have to specify what you want, then the architect can prepare a design. But you should not alter the design without the architect.
4. Camp directors must appreciate and support the need for research. The research findings, good or bad, must be analyzed and used in the planning process. Only where systematic evaluation and planning is done can research be useful.

What to Study?

Often one has some theories which are given as reasons for success or failure. Some may think that publicity is the main factor in enrollment. Some may think that competition and rewards are the best tools to maintain discipline, etc. Often we do research on a phase of camp which we think is important, and may neglect the less obvious but more important areas.

Here Talcott Parsons' concept of a social system is useful. The characteristics of a system are the interdependence of parts and the maintenance of an equilibrium. A social pattern can be understood properly only if related to a system, which has parts of components which can be determined. The functions of a system are external and internal, instrumental and consummatory. (5)

R. Merton states that "social systems" are analogue to the term "organism" in biology. He suggests that cumulative empirical research will select elements of the system. He postulates that there are certain functions:

1. functions -- which are useful to maintain the system
2. disfunctions -- which disrupt the system

3. manifest functions -- which are recognized
4. latent functions -- which are not recognized or intended (6)

The above discussion points to the necessity to relate a study of a part (of camp) to the total system (of camp). In order to get the total picture of a camp, probably the following parts should be studied and interrelated:

Organization (structure, administration)
Campers and leaders and their attitudes
Objectives
Program quality, quantity
Physical facilities (budget, buildings, equipment, food)
Relationship to outside (standards, sponsoring agency, institutions, parents)

Among studies to evaluate a camp performance, the following could be suggested:

1. Compliance with objectives. The objectives have to be stated in advance by a policy, as:

   Is the camp for members as a part of an ongoing program, or a community service for everyone?

   Is the purpose of the camp "character education," recreation, or training of skills?

   The type of camp, as residence, day camp, traveling, will partly determine the objectives.

2. Compliance with standards, the ACA or of the local agency. This study is of efficiency of the organization and facilities.
3. Attendance -- records of enrollment, participation. These are usually kept and available in camp reports.
4. Ecological study on where the campers come from, their ages, occupation of head of family, religious preference, socio-economic status, etc.
5. Cost studies. Net cost and gross cost (with overhead) per camper and per camper day. The worth of facilities and equipment. The studies are more valuable for comparison if standard procedures are used (the YMCA has one).
6. Evaluation of program. This is a study of quantity and quality. Some achievements of campers can be measured directly. Some have to be measured by ratings of counselors, parents and, if necessary, by specialists.
7. Other studies. As need arises, studies of health conditions, physical fitness of campers, morale of camp, etc.

How to Use Studies for Comparisons

In order to use a study for comparison, the measurements have to be in absolute figures or in statistical indices such as percentages, means, correlations, etc. There are at least four ways to use comparisons.

1. Taking stock. A measurement at a particular point of time is similar to taking stock in a business; it provides information on what we have.

2. Comparison with previous measurements. If a measurement is taken and then retaken within a time period, one can determine changes as increase or decrease. If measurements are repeated periodically, they can indicate trends.
3. Comparison with averages. If averages of measurements are computed, performance of units or individuals can be compared with averages and the deviation from the average can be determined. There may be local, regional, national, etc., averages to compare with.
4. Comparison with goals. If planning goals are set, then performance can be compared with the goal. For example, if the goal is 100 campers and 97 enroll, the enrollment is 3% less than the goal. Difference between actual performance and goal of performance can be measured similarly.

Evaluation of Program

Since time is limited, I shall discuss only the evaluation of camp program.

Direct measurements of achievement are quantitative measurements, as the number of meals, etc., individual or group achievements as in sports, fitness tests, swimming tests, etc. They can be compared with each other, with averages, or with goals.

Ratings of achievement. Evaluation means comparison. "Good" or "bad" means in comparison with something. Often, to prove that their program is good, camp directors quote glowing statements of campers and their parents, or present a "life story." Those are subjective statements which could be counteracted by negative statements which usually are not presented.

In order to get a more objective evaluation of the program, it has to be measured quantitatively. One of such measures are rating scales, as they are widely used in Public Opinion Research.

Ratings of the program by counselors, parents and, if necessary, specialists can be made and compared.

In the YMCA of Greater Seattle, a 7-point rating scale is used (1 - very poor, 2 - poor, 3 - below average, 4 - average, 5 - above average, 6 - good, 7 - very good) and participants are asked to rate different items as content, instruction, benefit, etc. The results are tabulated and averages (means) computed.

For example, the mean rating for day camps in 1961 was 6.31 (between good and very good, closer to good) and of a resident camp 5.98 (between above average and good, close to good).

Some camp directors may object that ratings of day camps are compared with ratings of resident camps. Why can't we? We are used to a similar situation in education. A student is given grades (i.e., ratings) in history, physical education, mathematics, etc. This is a comparison of achievement in different areas; even average points for all grades (ratings) are computed and reported. The results of ratings of program by participants have become very useful in the evaluation of program, in planning future program and in the supervision of staff. This has become an established procedure in the YMCA of Greater Seattle.

One could assume that any program rated "above average" is a good program and any program rated "below average" is a poor program. Very few ratings were "below average" and most were from "above average" to "very good". This is understandable because if participants think that a program is below average, they drop out and the program is discontinued. The next question may be, "What is the actual rating at which a program is in danger of not being patronized?" This depends on competition. If, for example, a YMCA has the only swimming pool in town, the program may hold low ratings but it will continue. In Seattle, the Day Camp program is a very competitive one. A study over five years has shown that the critical point is 5.95. The Research Department predicted in 1960 that two branches with Day Camps rated below 5.95 would have difficulties. In 1961 one of the branches had 20% enrollment of capacity. The other had to cancel because of lack of participants. A telephone survey of parents of former campers in both branches revealed that the day campers "did not like it."

Usually a group of specialists (in this case Camp Directors) can agree upon a list of items which represent the different areas of camp program. A more precise procedure would be to make a list of all possible items, to rate them and then by factor analysis select items to be rated.

For example, the list of items for day camps and how they have been rated by parents is reported in Table 1.

TABLE 1. COMPARISON OF A LOW AND A HIGH RATED SEATTLE YMCA DAY CAMP IN 1961 WITH AVERAGE RATINGS (7)

Item Rated	Low Mean	High Mean	Avg. for 7 Day Camps	Diff. from Average Low	Diff. from Average High
Swimming	6.48	6.17	6.22	+ .26	- .05
Outdoor Trips	6.61	6.64	6.50	+ .11	+ .14
Instructional Trips	5.77	6.62	6.23	- .46	+ .39
Handicraft	5.82	6.55	6.20	- .38	+ .35
Camp Craft	5.63	6.55	6.27	- .64	+ .28
Overnight Trips	6.44	6.89	6.66	- .22	+ .23
Games	5.66	6.64	6.23	- .57	+ .41
Leaders	6.22	6.64	6.54	- .32	+ .10
Getting Along with Other Campers	5.60	6.62	6.17	- .56	+ .45
Day Camp as a Whole	6.09	6.79	6.52	- .43	+ .27
Average	6.02	6.61	6.36	- .25	+ .25

The comparison with the average shows in what areas the day camps differ most, (games and getting along with others) and where, in planning next year's program, improvement is due.

An example of how ratings can lead to improvement is the Day Camp of the Fauntleroy Branch. In 1959 the lowest rated item was "Handicraft" - 5.96, while the average for all 11 branches was 6.05. A special program was designed and leaders trained. The rating for Fauntleroy in 1960 increased to 6.35. (8)

For Camp Directors who seriously want to improve their program, this procedure pinpoints the weak spots and also gives them a warning signal if ratings decrease and the planner or supervisor can make changes before a program collapses. Any program as long as it shows improvement is on the right track.

It is interesting to note that the average rating by parents of a resident camp was 5.98 while the counselors' rating was 4.76, considerably lower. It is probably a healthy attitude when people who produce the program are more critical of it than the parents who benefit from it.

Evaluation of a Camper

Some parents want to know how their boy did at camp. Counselors are often asked to write little notes with their observations. A more systematic and probably more reliable way is to ask the counselors to rate a boy on several items and to compare the boy's scores with the averages. An example is shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2. COUNSELOR'S EVALUATION OF BOY'S ATTITUDE IN CAMP (9)

Items Rated	Mean of Ratings	A Boy's Scores	Difference Boy's Score Over Average
Boy's attitude toward the group	4.81	6	+ 1.19
Boy's attitude toward counselor	4.93	7	+ 2.07
How much initiative has the boy?	4.69	3	- 1.69
How reliable is the boy?	4.84	4	- .84
How active is the boy?	4.89	4	- .89
How happy is the boy?	4.77	6	+ 1.23
Did camper show growth in Christian values?	4.49	3	- 1.49
How good was he on homesickness?	4.92	7	+ 2.08
Average	4.78	5.00	+ .22

The comments to parents about the boy: Your boy is not very aggressive, but he got along well with everybody. He was a very likeable and happy boy and we were glad to have him in camp.

Findings Lead to New Questions

The evaluation of program throws light on some other problems. For example, in a study of two YMCA resident summer camps:

1. Camp "A" has an excellent location, good facilities and equipment, and a carefully interviewed and trained staff. The program is carefully defined and supported by excellent resources.
2. Camp "B" is operated by a local branch. The facilities and equipment are limited, and the program quite traditional. Branch members serve as leaders and cooks.

The comparison of ratings of these two camps in 1958 is reported in Table 3.

TABLE 3. COMPARISON OF RATINGS FOR CAMP "A" AND CAMP "B" BY PARENTS

Item Rated	Camp "A"	Camp "B"	Difference Camp "B" Over Camp "A"
Program	6.23	6.52	+ .29
Good Time	6.45	6.54	+ .09
Leadership	5.99	6.30	+ .31
Administration	6.21	6.81	+ .60
Food	5.70	5.93	+ .23
Skills Learned	5.05	5.17	+ .12
Benefit from Camp	5.70	5.93	+ .23
Camp as a Whole	6.34	6.64	+ .30
All Ratings	5.95	6.27	+ .32

It could be anticipated that the ratings for Camp "A" which is a better camp would be higher than for Camp "B", but the reverse was true. All ratings for Camp "B" were higher than for Camp "A", especially the ratings for leadership, administration and program.

The question may be asked, "Why such a difference in the ratings?" What other questions are raised that the study does not answer? What influence does the constituency, and nature of the branch staff relationship, have on the ratings? A further study may emphasize the importance of other factors in the operation of these two camps, and prove beneficial in future planning.

How Studies are Made

The following policy was adopted by the YMCA of Greater Seattle and may help to approach research systematically.

1. Request for a study

   If a committee or staff decide that they need some information concerning a specific function or problem of the YMCA, they state their problems in the form of questions and request the Research and Studies Department to conduct a study.

2. Research committee

   The Board appoints a Project Research Committee consisting of laymen and staff.

3. Designing a study

   The Project Research Committee, together with the Director of Research, designs a study -- what information is necessary, how to gather it, who will do what.

4. Preparing a study

   The Research Department prepares a draft of a schedule or questionnaire. The committee revises the questionnaire -- often several times. The approved draft is pre-tested, evaluated, and then the final questionnaire is approved.

5. Sampling

   The Project Research Committee decides on the type of sample: the total population, a random sample, a systematic sample, etc.

6. Gathering of data

   If the committee decides to use interviewers, interviewers are recruited, then trained in one or several sessions. They are then assigned to interview persons in a sample.

   If it is decided to conduct a mail-back survey, the questionnaires are mailed to the sample. If necessary, arrangements are made for follow-up by phone calls or post cards.

7. Processing of data

   When the schedules or questionnaires are assembled, they are coded and IBM cards are punched and verified. The IBM cards are processed. From the results, tables are prepared, statistical indices are computed on a calculator.

8. Final report

   The findings are interpreted and a report prepared. The committee reviews the report and, if necessary, adds suggestions as to implementation of the study. The final draft of the report is mimeographed and placed in the hands of committee members and staff for discussion and action.

The Application of Research

The following policy was adopted by the YMCA of Greater Seattle to insure proper use of research findings.

1. The primary task of the Research Department is completed when the Director of Research has submitted a report of the study to the committee or staff who have requested it.

2. The chairman of the Research and Studies Committee, as he feels necessary, informs the chairman of the committee who has requested the study or the Metropolitan Board of Directors about his or the Research Studies Committee's opinion concerning the problems the study has raised.

3. The committee which requested the study reviews the report and discusses the findings and, if necessary, invites the Director of Research and Studies to comment on the findings or to answer the questions which may arise.

4. The staff studies the report, discusses the findings and, if necessary, confers with the Director of Research.

5. After discussion, the committee involved makes decisions regarding implementation of the study by:

   Specifying recommendations
   Specifying who is responsible for what
   Setting dates by which the recommendations should be carried out
   Setting dates by which a report on the results of decisions should be submitted to the committee concerned and discussed
   Decides on alternative actions

The YMCA staff person who is responsible for the area of program to which the study is related keeps the Metropolitan Executive posted on the progress of the implementation of the study.

State of Research on Camping and Some Suggestions

The state of research in camping is described in the ACA Bibliography of Studies and Research as follows:

> Whereas certain disciplines build research upon research, camping research appears to have each study isolated with no attempt to find out what has been done and then build thereon. This is evidenced by ten studies on the same topic -- all took the same approach. (10)

It does not look as if our research is a "storehouse" with well classified shelves from which we could obtain information, but rather a heap of data where we can't find what we want. I think we all can fully agree with the following statement:

> Rather than each individual going his own way, there must be a concerted effort to have one study build upon the findings of others.... (11)

It seems doubtful that the ACA research grants and the list of proposals for research will result in an orderly "storehouse." And it seems that, at least for the applied research in camping, we will be successful only if a plan is designed and standard procedures are agreed upon by the ACA, then applied.

The main problem will be to educate Camp Directors to make studies (with the help of specialists) and to use the results, as other professions have done.

In conclusion, while research is well established in the production of our material goods and also in business, in human behavior research only recently has developed to a degree where it can be successfully used. Psychology, sociology, and public opinion polls have developed methods which are used widely in education, management, military establishments, prisons, etc. Because of lack of funds and glamour, social organizations have been able to attract only few scientists. The lack of knowledge, especially among the older workers who are in control of social agencies, on how to use research has delayed the application of research within social organizations. But the growing competition for people's attention, the increasing control of United Funds, the more professional organizations of agency workers will force social agencies more and more to apply research. Also automation, with its electronic computors, will make research accessible and financially reasonable for general use in agencies whose funds are limited.

Research and planning are linked in a circle. Planning results in production; research evaluates products; planning is improved by research, results in better products and so on.

Our attempt is to introduce research into planning and production. In the future our attempt may appear primitive and inadequate, but it is a beginning.

Footnotes

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PHASE III: DIRECTION FOR CAMP RESEARCH

What Kinds of Research Are There?

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On the last day of our conference we intend to summarize issues that have developed out of the various presentations. I would like to focus our attention upon ways of looking at research. There is a tendency to label almost any study "research". The problem of what research really is could be argued but for the sake of this discussion let us start with the definition given yesterday by Dr. McNeil :

> Research is the systematic asking of meaningful questions under controlled conditions.

With this definition in mind we can then ask, "What kinds of research are there?" Not all so-called research is equally good, or pertinent, or timely. As a help in getting started on this problem, I've prepared a list of five dimensions useful in describing research. For the sake of illustration, a problem of homesickness is used; BUT WE MUST ALL REALIZE THESE DATA AND MANEUVERS ARE FICTITIOUS: perhaps so fictitious as to become bizarre.

Summary of the Dimensions of Research

1. Describing What Is	versus	1. Explaining Why It Is
e.g. How many campers get homesick?		e.g. What conditions are influential in producing homesickness or in reducing it?
2. Collecting Primary Data	versus	2. Collecting Secondary Data
e.g. Team of investigators observed 79 cases of homesickness. Ten agency camps had 30 of them; ten private camps 49.		e.g. According to questionnaires mailed to 200 private camps and 200 agency camps, there were 23 cases of homesickness in the 100 private camps replying and 56 cases in the 100 agency camps replying.
3. Exploring	versus	3. Demonstrating
e.g. Of 55 cases observed, 14 got better when the counselor talked to them of home - often of mother and what she did for child. Seven got better listening		e.g. Fifty homesick boys were supplied with tapes of their mother's voice talking from home to the boy and about her remembering him. Another 50 boys

with female counselor to music on radio. Ten improved after first mail from home. Remainder showed no improvement.		were given music tapes. Among "mother's voice" group, 59% got better in one day; among "music group" 16% got better in one day.
4. Experimenting (Controlling and manipulating conditions)	versus	4. Field Studying (Taking advantage of nature-not creating conditions)
e.g. By hypnosis, 100 boy campers were given light, temporary homesickness symptoms. Fifty were given "mother's voice" therapy; 50 "music therapy". Cure rates: 70% and 20% respectively.		e.g. Five camps located which made it a practice to have counselors show pictures of mother and induce recall of what mother said to child. Five camps of similar type found which had no such practice. Cure rates: 40% and 10% respectively.
5. Seeking Generalizations	versus	5. Seeking Situation Specific Findings
e.g. Population included boys, aged 6-10, of all socio-economic conditions dealt with by unselected counselors. Technique worked equally well regardless of type of boy or type of counselor.		e.g. Population included only upper middle class six year old boys dealt with by female, "maternal" counselors. Technique worked well with this population of children and counselors.

THE FOREGOING DATA ON HOMESICKNESS ARE FICTITIOUS AND ARE USED FOR ILLUSTRATIVE PURPOSES ONLY.

Describing What Is versus Explaining Why It Is

The first dimension refers to description versus explanation. For example, it may be legitimate to ask: "How many youngsters actually do get homesick at camp?" If we don't already know the answer to this question and if it is a meaningful issue, research designed to answer it would be good research. At some time, however, it would become important to explain the phenomenon of homesickness in camp: How and why does it arise? What conditions seem to increase or diminish its intensity or frequency? To a fair-minded scientist there is no intrinsic moral difference between descriptive or explanatory research; both are legitimate enterprises. If one really doesn't know about a geographical area, a description of this area is a logical first step. Before we ask how an area developed, how it is affected by surrounding areas or how it affects its surrounds, we want to know what that area itself is like. Descriptive research, then, is worthwhile if the phenomena under consideration have not been adequately described. Last night we heard some descriptions of camps for the emotionally disturbed. We need to know where these camps are, their typical facilities and routines and so forth. However, we hardly need any more such "research." Now it becomes necessary either to describe these plans in more subtle terms and/or to explain those factors which affect them or what factors they affect.

The distinction between description and explanation is logically sound, but, realistically a good description of a phenomena often merges into explanation. Let us take an example of a phenomena that was reported this morning. "Where do people set themselves up in the woods?" At one level, the statement of location of the parking lot, and location of more and less popular eating spots is straight description; however, this description suggests an explanation for the choice of eating areas; people generally choose the nearer area (rather than the farther and more private area). In this particular case, a description of the phenomenon and its parts lead easily to explanatory ideas.

My criticsm of much camp research with regard to the description-explanation dimension is double-barrelled and seemingly contradictory; that is, there is too much and too little descriptive research in camping. We have too much descriptive research that is repetitious or in terms that do not lead to answering questions. But we also have very little descriptive research on some important aspects of camping; for example, what do children really do at camp? Some people may think you can find this out by checking the activities schedule; but does this tell the story? When you look at the behavior of a child closely for a whole camp day -- as we did with Wally O'Neill -- you get a radically different idea of what campers do at camp than you do when you check the activities schedule; the schedule says swimming, but the specimen record for Wally at swimming says something quite different; it tells of closeness to a female counselor, of a delight in gravity-defying feats, of fantasy play, and so forth.

Descriptions of what really happens in camp are not as plentiful as you might think. And the ironic part is that we plan research to discover the long term effects of camp, such as character change, before we even have adequate descriptions of what our clients actually do at camp! Explanatory research of this type is, it seems to me, to be "bad" research. It is premature; it won't help us understand.

Collecting Primary versus Secondary Data

The second dimension refers to how data are collected. Let us suppose that the research question is: "How frequent is the homesickness-at-camp phenomenon?" Investigators may try to answer this question by a direct check or they may rely on nonresearch informants. In this particular case, primary data could be derived by a team of investigators going out to camps on the opening and succeeding days. They notice 79 cases of homesickness; they don't ask and accept the counselors statements, nor the director's statements although they might use these statements as kind of a fact finding start. They go, they see, and they code this camper as homesick and that camper as not homesick. They get primary data.

Now the other way to do this involves some filter between the investigators and the phenomenon in which they are interested. The secondary collection is described in the foregoing summary. Questionnaires mailed to 200 private camps and 200 agency camps revealed there were 23 cases in 100 private camps which replied and 56 cases in the 100 agency camps. Now let's just look at this for a bit. In the first place, only half of the people responded; there has been a lot of research in psychology and it is now known that those people who do not respond to a voluntary questionnaire feel differently, act differently -- are different persons than those who do. The particulars vary, but this is such a well-known fact that we do not need more research to establish it. It has been proven in the area of volunteering, too. You get different data if you make everybody in the sophomore class take three experimental sessions than if you let just part of the class. So we have to accept that as an inevitable problem of voluntary questionnaires.

So you will notice here that in the replies that we get, we have 23 cases in 100 private camps. Go back to the other side; we found 30 cases in 10 private camps when we used the primary investigation method. Put it another way; direct check shows three cases of homesickness per each private camp but questionnaires showed only .23 per private camp. Let's suppose camp directors have a need to say, "In my camp children do not get homesick." The tendency for them would be to underestimate the extent of homesickness. You get two different answers to your research question depending on whether you make a direct or secondary data collection.

Why do we arrive at two different sets of data when we use the primary and the secondary collection procedures? First, there is the obvious; there is a simple loss of amount of information due to failure to respond in the secondary collection.

Question: Isn't it possible to use unmailed questionnaires in such a way that you get 100 per cent response? How would you evaluate this instrument? Certainly one can administer questionnaires in such a way that all or almost all subjects must answer. This would eliminate the bias introduced by partial response. However, there are two other obvious sources of misinformation when employing nonresearch informants. In this particular example, there is the possible conscious or unconscious "shaping" of data by camp directors who do not want to see homesickness at their camps. Of course, we could get this shaping of data by the agency camp people, too, but they have less at stake. We have to remember that a child has been sent, often at considerable expense, to the care of a private camp director; every child who is unhappy, that is homesick, is likely to be perceived as a case in which the camp and its director failed. It is only human to see only a part of one's failures. Since my data is fictitious you tend to see fewer cases of failure than exist. It is enough if you see it as a possibility that some informants who have much at stake, may sometimes give less than valid information.

Finally the use of nonresearch informants leads to inadequate information because the informant may not be in a position to know the answers to our question. Take the matter of camp directors; some directors really know every youngster and his experience; others spend little time with campers since they are occupied with the public relations and business affairs of camp administration. If such a person answers that no child is homesick at his camp he may not even be unconsciously distorting facts; he simply was not in a position to learn about homesickness. We could imagine, for example, that the assistant director in charge of the counselors handled several mild cases of homesickness without their even coming to the director's attention at all.

To recapitulate, secondary data comes from non-research informants who tell us of the phenomenon in which we are interested. Although reasonably inexpensive and useful for getting ideas, this method is subject to the triple danger of: 1) response from only a certain type of informant; 2) data shaping by informants who have something at stack; and, 3) misinformation based on informants' lack of knowledge which in turn is based on their inappropriate position in the milieu we are investigating.

Having been involved in reviewing camp research for several years I have become sensitive -- perhaps you'll say oversensitive -- to the use of secondary data. I see a great reluctance among camp researchers to get out and see what goes on in camp. These researchers prefer to let the mailman do the job. Frankly, I think this nonsense must stop! There are good research problems in camping but most of them will never be solved by mailing out questionnaires to busy camp directors. Since I've mentioned bias as possible among camp directors, let me confess one of my own: "A questionnaire study is always guilty until proven innocent!" I shall treat any student who suggests a questionnaire with much rigor and little sympathy. It is theoretically possible that his questionnaire study is worthwhile, but he will have to prove it.

Question: Are you saying that we need to develop questionnaires from the point of view of validity and reliability? That is a fancy way of saying it. Question: But I am trying to think in the terms of people who talk about this in terms of testing concepts of reliability and validity. Doesn't it seem that these concepts have been applied to tests but often ignored in the questionnaire? Yes. I am talking about validity of a kind here. The question is: "How accurately (how validly) does the informant's statement reflect that which I am too poor or lazy or pressed for time to go and measure myself?" If we think about certain problems, we can see that informants are often poor sources of data. Even camp directors often do not know, for example, how most of their counselors operate most of the time. They know about the few peaks of efficiency or inefficiency but the minute-by-minute operations they do not see. But wouldn't it be useful to get some direct data on this problem of the efficient counselor?

Exploring versus Demonstrating

When we speak of exploring we intend the sort of discipline implied in the McNeil definition of research. That is, exploring here means systematic asking of meaningful questions. The difference between these two types of research efforts is rather fundamental and not widely appreciated. In exploratory research the investigator says: "I'm not at all sure what affects the phenomena I am interested in." (Or he might say, "I'm not sure what effects are created by this phenomenon.") "I plan to look at it quite closely and systematically and see if I can't discover possible variables."

On the other hand in demonstrative research, the investigator says: "I am pretty sure what the variable or variables are which affect the phenomena and I am going to demonstrate that relationship."

In the case we have used for illustration, investigation started with consideration of 55 cases and with circumstances which seemed to be connected with up and down swings of homesickness. Supposing investigation was lucky enough to find that 14 cases got better when the counselor talked to them of home -- oh, they cried during the talk but felt better afterward. Seven improved listening to music with female counselors; ten improved after the first mail from home. Now, if this really happened -- I'd be most surprised! But let us assume it for purposes of illustration. The material here becomes valuable then as a source of tentative understanding of how homesickness in camp might be handled. The data suggest that homesickness will lighten if the camper can feel a re-established contact with home. The talk about mother, the being with female counselors and listening to music, and the mail from home all suggest the possibility. Now it becomes feasible to combine these experiences into one package (tapes of mother's voice) and test out this possibility. To provide control we'll have some kinds of tapes for all homesick sufferers so we'll be sure it's home contact and not just listening to tapes that worked. Since in imagination anything is possible, I have imagined on the illustration that 59 per cent of subjects listening to mother's tapes got better, as compared to 16 per cent of those listening to music tapes. This would demonstrate the effectiveness of the home contact variable. Exploratory research is often a necessary prelude to demonstration research. Demonstrations should be attempted only after the data from exploratory research give good reason for supposing that the demonstration will succeed. The real discoveries in science do not originate in demonstration research; they begin with explorations. Demonstration simply nails the proof down.

Yesterday we exercised our research muscles on the problem of wilderness camping and the development of self-reliance. What was proposed was a sort of test experiment or a demonstration. I estimated the cost as between 40 and 100 thousand dollars. Before this kind of effort is invested, it might be well to do some exploratory research. Send a couple of graduate students out as assistant leaders on wilderness camping expeditions. Have them watch, listen, keep records; have them talk to boys and counselors on the trip; after the trip; also talk to other groups. From such exploration we could never prove that wilderness camping improved self-reliance, but we might learn whether this was a good possibility. We might also learn that the probable effects of this experience should be in a different direction; perhaps in increased capacity to cooperate with others and/or in increased body confidence. Then we could invest our thousands of dollars with much more confidence in demonstration research.

The absolute necessity for demonstration research cannot be denied. With all of the differences of opinion regarding how reality operates, we must have the arbitration furnished by demonstration research. However, demonstration research is a final step; it is usually preceded by the difficult and less structured work of exploration. And for many problems, exploration research requires direct data collection.

The close and careful "look" that productive exploration requires can occur best with direct, not filtered-through-informants data.

Experimenting versus Field Studying

This dimension has some similarities to the one just preceding. For example, the usual experiment is also an attempted demonstration. The difference between the ideas represented by the third and fourth dimensions is a difference between the purpose of the investigation (crucial to dimension three above) and its method (most pertinent to this dimension). The purpose distinction, in exploring versus demonstrating, is that between looking for variables that might make a difference and proving that already selected variables do make a difference. The method distinction in experimenting versus field studying is that between rigorous control of the investigated phenomena and avoidance of "intrusive control" of the phenomena. Let us now start with the experimental example given in the summary. You are doubtless thinking that these examples are departing further and further from reality; you are right. Even so, the hypnosis example will be well-chosen if it emphasizes the cardinal aspect of a classical experiment, the investigator creates the conditions he wishes to study. In this case, he created the homesickness and then created the conditions to affect the homesickness. In the field study on the other hand, the investigator takes advantage of naturally-occurring variations to test out an idea. You can understand that this particular research on homesickness cannot be done now; no camps utilize this technique. But again we can imagine that such techniques could be used; we can also imagine comparing the success of this kind of treatment with no special treatment of homesick campers. In this particular case we found that the five camps employing the mother recall therapy achieved 40 per cent cure and those who did nothing special, 10 per cent. In contrast we noted that the special technique in the experiment has been imagined to yield 10 per cent cure as opposed to 20 per cent for the music therapy. We imagined here that hypnosis homesickness is a more uniform and superficial problem and therefore "cure" was easier. We also imagined that the music therapy had some little success because it operated like a placebo. The boys felt that "something" was being done for their unhappiness and 20 per cent of them improved on this basis.

How shall we compare these two approaches to research? Several potential disadvantages of experiments can be easily seen; it is often inconvenient or impossible to create variables; to manipulate factors. Homesickness is hard to create; we might do it by hypnosis but this is not at all certain. Also raised is the doubt about deliberately making children unhappy in order to do experiments. And if we get by these two problems, we still face parental criticism for making guinea pigs of their children. Well, you can see there are lots of variables of interest to social scientists which are not easily created and manipulated. We might, for example, want to know how father-dominated versus mother-dominated boys related to male counselors. In this case our independent variables, parental domination, would be difficult to create; we must use what is given.

A final question which can be raised about experimentation is whether the conditions created for experimentation reasonably match the real world conditions about which we wish to predict. In the present case, is the hypnosis homesickness anything like the homesickness we see in camp? If it is not; the experiment is fraudulent; it tells us about contrived conditions, not real ones.

Experimental research enjoys high status in my field. So high that some psychologists are trained only in this effort and they end up both ignorant and suspicious of field study methods. But it seems to me that much of the camp research will not be experimental. We cannot recklessly change routines, personnel, clients, administrators, policies. Often we shall have to rely on non-experimental methods. This means that we seek out variations that are naturally occurring and then study the effects of these variations.

This field or naturalistic approach too has some disadvantages; some interesting or theoretically important variations may not be readily available for study; this was the case in the homesickness treatment. Camps do not have such a method, so this cannot be tested without an experiment. Furthermore, variations may exist, but they are not "clean". For example, we might test out the success of Method A and Method B for teaching swimming. We find that Camp I uses Method A and Camp II uses Method B; furthermore, Camp II has the best results; more children learn to swim at this camp with Method B. Does this prove the superiority of Method B? As you know, we could only say, "yes", if other relevant factors were equivalent in Camp I and Camp II. If Camp II deals with youngsters who have always lived in and around water while Camp I deals with "landlocked" children, maybe this water familiarity causes the difference rather than the teaching method.

Field studies or naturalistic studies which attempt to demonstrate cause and effect relationships are always subject to such a problem; one must be able to rule out the possibility that spurious factors do not produce the results one attributes to studied factors. This is not always so difficult; in the present case of comparing Method A and Method B, we can select camps using contrasting methods but drawing camper populations from similar areas.

One advantage to a successful field study is that there is often some assurance the phenomena under study is ecologically valid. By this we mean that a relationship has been understood which exists in a real, not a contrived situation.

Seeking Generalizations versus Seeking Situation-Specific Findings

In our problem of homesickness, we may want to be able to understand the broad phenomenon of homesickness -- as it applies to boys of various ages and conditions who were dealt with by a variety of counselors. We may, however, be guided by a more limited ambition; we may be satisfied if we could learn something about a narrow population of boys dealt with by a specific kind of counselor.

Ordinarily we are more impressed with research findings capable of wide generalization. If, for example, we found a homesick treatment which worked, we'd like it to work in a variety of situations, with a range of clients, when administered by different kinds of personnel. The superiority of generalizable findings is unquestioned. What may be questioned is the research strategy of seeking wide generalizations for all research. This may be too greedy; in the process of attempting to sample ranges of subjects and situations, we do not really find out about even a limited phenomena. We would agree that it would be better to discover a limited homesick cure for a segment of the population, than to find nothing at all while seeking something generalizable to a total population. The principle here has some implications for other issues. If we seek generalizable findings, this usually means a wider sample: more different people, situations, and sites. In turn, this often leads to superficial investigations of the phenomena; since we have so much to cover, we send out questionnaires or try some other method of secondary data collection. We might be better off in camp research if we took a closer look at less; rather than submissively obeying the dictum: "All results must be capable of wide generalization."

Perhaps it is time to begin discussion of these issues. I have presented these ideas, sketchy as they are, because I believe that camping people should have some basis for evaluating research; in some cases, they need some skepticism about what passes for research, while in other cases, some support in attempting research which neither the loose questionnaire nor the narrow experiment can handle. It may help to see that research comes in a number of varieties.

A Few Paraphrased Highlights of the Discussion

Question: Would you say that if research fell on one side or the other on these dimensions, it was therefore a good or poor research? No, that was not intended. These simply are dimensions with which to think about research. However, one could always ask whether a research fell on the correct end of these dimensions considering the problem under investigation and the state of knowledge at the present time. Let's go down the list quickly and illustrate this matter of the considerations which might apply. A descriptive research of the typical camp administrative organization is probably of little scientific value. This is reasonably well known; however, a detailed description of how 20 agency camp directors actually spend their time might be quite valuable. From this we could get a fresh picture of the role demands of this job. On the other side -- the explaining side -- research designed to find out why some youngsters gain in "character" while at camp and others do not is premature. We know too little about any gains (except perhaps weight) made by children through camp experience. First some "character gains" made at camp will have to be described; then some camp factors which presumably might affect character development will have to be identified. Thus we'll have to see whether to start on the question of why some campers make gains and others do not. As an end goal, explanation research is always desirable; for certain problems, however, explanation-seeking can be premature and futile.

Going on to dimension two, it is better to collect primary rather than secondary data if you have the time and if the problem is at all subtle. But if one's informant is conscientious, and "in a position to know," there are certainly problems which lend themselves to secondary data collection. For example, if we were interested in the sex and age distribution of children in agency versus private camps, we would not have to go personally to all these camps and talk to each child; the camp administrators could easily tell us the age and sex of their clients.

On the issue of exploring versus demonstrating, it is clear that a proposition which is demonstrated is a kind of finished product; it has become a part of firm knowledge. Ideas gained from exploratory studies are just that -- ideas. Therefore, demonstrations are better in that they are further along the scientific road; however, if we did not have extensive exploratory efforts there would be no worthwhile ideas to demonstrate.

On the experimenting versus field studying, the good experiment usually has better control over the factors involved in the study; on the other hand, a field study is often "nearer to life." Furthermore, it may be the only feasible set of methods for a particular problem.

The seeking generalization study is a more advanced effort than a study which limits its findings to restricted situations. Again, though, we must be careful. A phenomenon may be so slightly comprehended that a series of small particularistic studies are more appropriate than larger and more generalizeable studies.

Question: Could you take one study and locate it at one of these ten poles represented by these dimensions? Well, you recall the Swim-Cookout-Dining Hall study reported on earlier. The effort here was to relate setting variation to variation in amount of hostile behavior. This study was an attempt at *explanation* of hostile behavior involving *primary data collection* of an *exploratory type* using the *field study* rather than the experiment and capable of only *limited generalization*. It was limited because only a certain type of boys in one kind of camp were under study. Now, if a study is truly descriptive rather than explanatory, the dimensions of primary-secondary data, and generalization-specific findings remain relevant; however, since we do not seek casual relationships, the exploring-demonstrating and experimenting-field studying dimensions are less relevant. Of course, to complicate matters is the fact that many investigations have phases or aspects; one part might be categorized differently than another. This complexity can be handled by treating each phase as a separate study and seeing how the dimensions apply to these parts.

Question: I often do descriptive research for an organization which uses the research process to convince people of needs. It may be that the results show something that has already been documented. Would you not call this research -- even though we know the answers ahead of time? If we stick to the spirit of the McNeil definition of research which includes the words "meaningful question," then we would have to say that the activity to which you refer is not research. It is not research because questions for which we have adequate answers are not meaningful questions. It is not meaningful to study the effects of Sabin vaccine if we already know these effects. What you are referring to is not research but a sophisticated exercise in public relations.

Question: But you do the same work? You go through the same motions; you do not engage in the same enterprise; once the answers are known, the activity for again getting those answers has changed its meaning.

Question: Doesn't it seem that one of our problems is the cumulation or lack of it, of research? I mean there are so few agreed upon descriptive categories that when one reads a study, one may or may not find something which adds to or is pertinent to what he already knows. Yes, this is a problem and you stimulate another related issue: that of replication studies. Although it is not research to set about to find out what we already know, it does seem legitimate to ask: Is what investigator X said he found out really true? In the social sciences, it is shocking the number of crucial studies which have never been checked by a second investigator. It would seem to me that if an issue is a really pivotal one, replication studies are not only legitimate but requisite. Perhaps MA candidates might be encouraged to do replication studies instead of attempting to add new dimensions of knowledge. Another development that relates to this is the use of the same data by independent investigators. If, for example, we had 20 day studies of 20 different counselors, we could derive a number of studies from rich and basic data. Perhaps we are already giving up the fantasy of every investigator's being a lonely scientist who thinks up his own problem, develops his own measurement techniques and collects his own data. Camping research would be helped if we gave up this idea and let one investigator build on, even use, the data of another.

Question: I wonder how this would relate to the study reported the last evening? Well, let's review that study's major point. The problem was "What was related to counselor success? How was success defined?" The camp director was asked if they were successful. Success in camp seems to come down to having the director accept you as successful. And one question we might ask is whether meaning success in this fashion was a direct or secondary method. One could have devised other definitions of success and then gone out to camps and watched counselors operate and select those who did and did not approximate, in their behavior, these definitions of success. You might define success as 1) using relatively few control or discipline techniques, 2) being frequently approached by children for social interactions, or 3) leading a group which showed frequent signs of activity satisfaction, or happiness. Then it would be possible to judge success in terms of counselor and camper behavior. The definition of success in the Lundegren study last evening was the director's opinion. If you ask the director then you have direct data for success -- given this definition. However, if one feels that the director's opinion is a reflection of something else and that the real phenomena under study is this something else, then the data is secondary.

Question: Could I ask a question about this matter of wide sampling? Why is it supposed to be important? This relates to the last dimension - that of generalization. If we find out something to be true for a special place or population, we are never sure whether it has application beyond this limited place or population. By including a variety of places, persons or situations, we can be more assured that the findings are not restricted. In camping, one sampling method is by region. This is, to my mind, a crude and often wasteful type of sampling.

Rejoinder: It seems to me that geographic or region sampling is important. We know, for example, that New England tends to have a large population of private camps and that attenders at these camps tend to come from out-of-state. These factors will make these camps somewhat different from camps in the Midwest. (Answer) Well, the question is: "Why do we sample at all?" We do this so that a variety of situations can contribute to the data, so that our results will not be peculiar to one kind of situation or person. Now camps differ. The question is whether the important differences are regional or geographic differences.

Rejoinder: Well, if camps in New England are heavily private or attended by non-natives, this makes for regional difference, doesn't it? (Answer) But the differences that affect the camp may not be regional differences but differences that are carried by the region. In this particular case, it may be that the important variables are agency versus private and attended by "natives" or by "foreigners". So if we wanted to sample all of a range of camps we would try to get agency and private camps; camps attended by local children and camps attended by children from out-of-state. We might be able to do this all in one state! What I'm maintaining is that the differences which probably make a difference are not geographical but only associated with geography. Eventually we may give up regional sampling and employ variables which we know make a difference.

Question: There is the Stouffer study on political attitudes which illustrates this point. Stouffer did a regional analysis of liberal-conservative attitudes and he found regional differences. However, when he analyzed in finer detail, it seemed that variables like age and education, which vary within regions, were accounting for regional differences. Are we not closer to the truth if we use these variables rather than region?

Rejoinder: Well, you have to start some place, and it seems that if regional differences are clear enough, this is a place to start. (Answer) Well, we do have to start some place. But regional sampling can lead to heavy use of the mailman; to that curse of camping research -- dependence upon secondary data. I want it clear that it is possible to sample quite widely within the same region; it may be that a sample drawn from one agency camp and one private camp in Indiana is a wider sample than one drawn from one private camp in California.

Rejoinder: Of course, we can use region, age of campers, and agency versus private, and a lot of other variables and by statistical analysis determine which variables really are related to the problem under study.

Where Are We Now - And Where Do We Go?

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Where are we now? For an answer to this question, I could well refer you to the Bibliography of Research, for in it are listed all studies which the American Camping Association has been able to identify; by analyzing them we could see "Where we are," but this is not all that's to "Where we are." At this workshop we have talked about the need for research in relation to camp values, to grouping, to counselor selection, to camper response. We have heard that we need to build on research already done, rather than each going his own isolated way. Where are we in terms of what there is to build upon?

To be completely statistical, we have identified nearly 1000 studies which we might call direct camp research. Of these, approximately one-fourth are based on outdoor education; about 100 refer to staff, particularly selection; 80 relate to administration and another 80 to program with one-fourth of them regarding teen-agers; over 50 deal with "special need campers" including about 20 on emotionally disturbed and juvenile delinquent campers; 50 study campers - their behavior, grouping, understanding; at least 40 are based on values of camping, the topic so greatly discussed at this workshop; and the remainder are of a miscellaneous nature.

The question is, of course, what kind of studies are these -- what do they show? Analysis indicates that two-thirds are theses and dissertations and that the remainder have been done by individuals, organizations and agencies.

Now, I will admit that I have not read all of these studies, but I believe that my work with the ACA Research and Studies Committee has given certain insights and observations, particularly as related to studies within the past ten years.

1. There appears to be very little "building on research." For example, one inquiry was received for information covering all studies which had been made on a specific topic. Not only did I find him ten studies, but most were with similar title and approach. Needless to say, it was recommended that if this young man wished to continue with his general topic, he consider a new approach.
2. While some quality studies are being done, there seems to be too many which are merely term papers and personal projects with no systematic research design or quality, such as compilations of material on a subject without evaluation or critical analysis, course outlines, counselor's manuals, an outdoor education program for a specific grade in their own school, a questionnaire-survey, and superficial evaluations of camp program. These topics are not improper in and of themselves, but the lack of systematic application of research principles makes them meaningless. For example, a study on organized-family camping used sixteen brochures of a national agency and certain church groups to obtain a listing of program activities, objectives, and program administrative policies. These items were ranked by frequency of mention in the brochures and rated as to importance by a

a "jury of experts". The two ratings were correlated and the top items were set forth as desirable program for an organized family camp.

The foregoing may result from general laxity in the quality of graduate education in some institutions today, the advising of studies by individuals who are not primarily concerned with camping and outdoor education, the lack of knowledge regarding research tools for the camp setting, the inability to define a problem contributing to the camping movement, or the lack of availability of camping material on which to build although this latter cause is more apt to be the result of laziness in searching the literature and taking advantage of aids which exist to assist in identification of research materials. Although camping is basically a social science-related field, the direction of theses is usually done by a department not oriented to use sociological or psychological tools of research.

And I believe that another element should be added here -- no one has demanded quality of research! But more important, *no one has really demanded research to answer the questions and problems of the camping movement*.

A majority whom we call the "practitioners of camping", and this includes most of the people active in camping today, truly believe in camping with much nostalgia and emotion. I have a saying which we could well heed, "Do not let your emotion set fire to your reason!" Such practitioners not only emotionally believe in camping, but also consider that their experience qualifies them as experts. If we have a problem, usually of a so-called practical nature of immediate concern, they use the "personal-experience" approach, often manifest in the statement, "At our camp we do this ...". Some have termed this *experience wisdom* or *experience research*. What do I mean? If a camp director has a problem, he writes to five or six colleagues for their advice or talks to them at conventions -- he does not turn to research nor even gives one passing thought that research might have an answer. But more tragic, if he did turn to research, he is apt to find none that could help him. So the camp director uses the personalized approach to practical everyday problems. Do not misunderstand me; nothing is wrong with professional persons' sharing their experiences and problems. As a matter of fact, it is highly desirable and necessary, and at this stage in camp research perhaps more reliable than relying on the results of so-called research.

Yes, today the camp director may be ahead of the researcher with his experience-wisdom research in coping with problems. But, if the field of camping is to move ahead progressively to meet the challenges of its patrons and potential patrons for, indeed, its very survival, then camping must study this experience-wisdom, and then forge ahead on sound research to contend with basic problems and develop basic concepts.

In years past, camping did not really have to justify itself, but today camping professionals are being asked to assume the *responsibility of accountability*, to find out whether camp experience is really contributing to the common good. They are responsible, at this time in history, for finding out what camping's results are, what is accomplished well and what is not done at all, and whether or not camping is improving its practices.

In this decade of the 20th century, *research* is the major instrument of accountability. Evaluations of accomplishment ultimately require research in order to assure objectivity and some degree of probability that service and results are truly related. To continue as a professional movement, *camping cannot forego research*, even when the consumer of our services or those who meet the budgets for our camps have confidence in the program and in the process as it now exists. In an earlier era, camping could justify itself by its intentions and activities; today, there is the right of the public and the patrons to ask for systematic validation by measurement of effects and an evaluation of the processes which camping employs.

Concern with results of one's own operations leads naturally and properly to constant analysis of methods and to questions about one's basic body of knowledge. Paths of such concerns, too, are the paths to research and one should not omit the fact that professional responsibility includes concern with accurate data about areas in which our camper's needs have not been met.

Since professional accountability leads naturally and properly to research that measures results, that deals with methods and processes, and which studies needs and resources, it is, therefore, the response of the professional in the camping movement to the call of research which will determine the future and major advances in the camping movement. And what is this response? What should it be? What is the role of the camp director in research?

As I see it, there may be four roles or responsibilities of the camp director:

1. *To provide an audience for research.* Why should a researcher really work and take time to write up his findings if the camp director isn't interested? The director not only must read what is written and have an appreciation for research, but also must request and demand that research be written up in terms meaningful for camp operations and that research sessions be provided at conventions where he can discuss research findings. Furthermore, in such review and use of research, it is the responsibility of the camp director to reject poor studies, studies which are not up to professional standards, studies which are not making a contribution to the camping movement. Only in this way will studies improve in their quality, and can be accepted as valid to hasten the day for research of higher quality, toward greater compentency, better work.

2. *To furnish research problems.* The camp director should not ask, "What research problem can I do in my camp?" but insist "Here is a problem we have; how can we best attack it?" When camp directors say that student studies are not pertinent to camp operations, that they do not deal with the primary concerns and problems of the camp professional, who is to blame? But this is not to say that all research problems should be only of a practical nature submitted by camp directors or from personal experience of the students. There is a place for theoretical research and it should not be overlooked, for many new visions can come from this type of study. Yes, we must solve our common problems, but also we must study the very nature of our camp program to its depths.

3. *To grant a laboratory for research.* It is important that camp directors cooperate as much as possible in making their camps available for experimental

and other types of studies, recognizing, of course, that the on-going program of the camp for the campers is not to be jeopardized. Furthermore, there is another type of research for which the camp can serve as a laboratory and through which the camp director can make a direct contribution to the camp research field. First, every staff member should have a research experience in the manner in which he handles records and reports. So many camp records and reports are biased, unconsciously inaccurate, and mere busy-work! The camp director should discuss with his staff the manner of making reports and observations accurately, how to record anecdotes, how to consider pertinent influencing factors so that all conclusions and recommendations are based upon sound logic and reasoning. It would also be helpful if there could be some consistency in form of data collecting so that from year to year, camp to camp, data could be compared accurately? For example, one study was done on campers by age groupings 8-10, 11-12, 13-14, 15-16; another study used 7-9, 10-12, 13-15. Here the data of the two studies can not be compared accurately because of difference in age groupings. Unless there were real reasons for these differing groupings in each study, it would have been more desirable for both studies to have the same age groupings so that the data could be utilized comparatively. The same could be said about salary classifications, annual reports and other areas where consistency of classification and categorization is important for comparative studies.

Secondly, the camp can be a small research center within itself. Through action-research the camp director should experiment with unorthodox ways of doing things -- not wait for research of others to inform him but try out his own hunches systematically. Also, through exploratory studies he may develop hypotheses that can then be tested by an experimental study under controlled conditions. Such studies do not have to be large or pretentious, but rather can and should be small "bites", small in scope, interesting to do, but not a burden.

4. To offer the "practicability test". The researcher may make a finding, but is it feasible to use in the operational setting of the camp? For example, it may be found that a certain psychological test will discriminate accurately for the selection of counselors; but, can the test be administered by the camp director to his applicants and is it within financial reason?

These are what I consider the primary roles of the camp director -- but what about the other side -- what are the roles of the researcher?

1. To design studies. The average camp director may not have adequate educational background in research methods and techniques to design completely his own study. It is the researcher's duty to assist in this designing and to keep the director apprised of the most recent and best research techniques to use. Camp directors should not hesitate to call for help from researchers in universities and colleges or those associated with other agencies and organizations.

2. To interpret results. Frequently we hear the complaint that research is written up in such a technical manner that the average camp director does not understand what is being said, nor does he see any implications in it for him. The researcher should attempt to discuss the implications of the findings for such a director's camp operations. But, in order to do this, the researcher must have some association with the camp field.

3. To bring to bear inter-disciplinary information. The researcher should be aware of the contributions of various disciplines in substantive content and methodology and bring these to the camp director. Only by bringing such pertinent aspects of all disciplines to bear upon camping research can the greatest gains be made.

The individual camp director and the researcher are not the only ones who have a responsibility toward research. Camping itself, as an organized institution has a responsibility, a responsibility to be implemented by the professionals within the organized camping groups. Here we are speaking of the responsibility of the American Camping Association. There appear to be four major responsibilities which the ACA should assume:

1. Dissemination. The ACA can provide channels through which research findings may be reported, implications for camp operations cited, and concerns expressed. This is done partly through the *Bibliography of Studies and Research* with its periodic addenda and the occasional *Research Memo* which includes abstracts or brief comments on studies in progress or completed. You may be placed on the mailing list and receive the Memo without charge. In addition, articles in *Camping Magazine* and a *Research Monograph* series, which represent popularized versions and technical, detailed reports, respectively, serve as other avenues of information. While there is some consultation through correspondence, great need still exists for the ACA to establish a research and information service with primary function to obtain, collate, coordinate and disseminate camping and related research material and information, in general and upon specific request.

2. Assistance in financing. This responsibility might be discharged by employing several methods; let me cite two.

   a. To undertake research projects under special contracts or grants, either by employing a special project director, as the ACA did for the National Park Service survey of resident camps, or by serving as a coordinating agency and "farming out" portions of the project to other agencies and institutions.

   b. To provide research grants to individuals and organizations. It is hoped with the establishment of the American Camping Association Foundation that rather substantial funds will become available. At present the ACA does not have adequate funds for such service, although it had a $200 annual research grant for several years and now has a small Research Fund to which requests may be made.

3. Coordination. In this sense, one is not thinking so much in terms of coordinating actual research projects, as indicated above, as suggesting procedures which would gather data suitable for comparative purposes and recommending approaches which would supplement or complement other studies under way or completed. Except on an informal consultation basis, little of this type of coordination is now being done.

4. Stimulation. It is definitely the responsibility of a professional organization to stimulate and encourage high quality research. How does one motivate such endeavor? -- through giving credit to and using research of quality, through providing opportunities to report results in print, through granting nominal stipends for studies, through officially endorsing good studies, through lively discussions on research at conferences. The ACA

publication and grant programs have already been mentioned. The national ACA studies and research committee also provides an endorsement procedure whereby individuals and organizations, wishing the critique of the national committee and the right to indicate on their study that it has been endorsed by the ACA committee, can submit the research prospectus for review. Opportunities for discussion and reporting of studies are provided at national and regional conventions. ACA section research committees are encouraged. This workshop itself exemplifies a major effort to stimulate interest in quality research related to camping.

Where does all this leave us? Where are we now? Where are we going? To me the picture is bright. Today, more than ever, we have evidence of interest in and concern about research, quality research, research to solve the problems of the camping movement. Further, we recognize that research requires high competence, and we seek individuals with competence to assist us. We are attempting to approach our research concerns with systematical and logical reality. If this is where we are now -- then where we are going is toward the successful use of research in our profession, toward a sound program of research, and thereby ultimately toward a finer camp contribution to our society today. The road is not an easy one, but the important thing is that we start up the research road now.

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Name	Address	Position
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Ball, Armand	YMCA, 745 Cedar Street St. Paul 1, Minnesota	Executive Secretary Camp Widjiwagan
Bloom, Joel	88 Annawan Road Waban 68, Massachusetts	Owner-director Camp Powhatan for Boys
Carter, May Belle	American Camping Assoc. Martinsville, Indiana	Assistant Director American Camping Assoc.
Churchill, John W.	306 B Educ. Bldg. University of Wisconsin Madison, Wisconsin	Instructor of Recreation University of Wisconsin
Dexter, Carolyn R.	830 - 3rd Avenue New York 22, New York	Director of Research Girl Scouts, U.S.A.
Dodd, Edward	National Council, Boy Scouts of America New Brunswick, New Jersey	Research Division Boy Scouts of America
Dollgener, Robert	365 N. Main Martinsville, Indiana	Graduate Student Indiana University
Friedman, Major	68 Fayerweather St. Cambridge 38, Mass.	Assistant Director Camp Robin Hood
Goering, Oswald H.	Lorado Taft Field Campus Oregon, Illinois	Associate Professor of Outdoor Education Northern Illinois Univ.
Gump, Paul V.	Oskaloosa, Kansas	Associate Professor of Psychology University of Kansas
Gunn, Yale	Route 8, Box 345 Charlotte 5, N.C.	Camp Administrator Mecklenburg Presbytery Presbyterian Church, U.S.
Holden, John L.	2530 Salem Avenue Cincinnati 8, Ohio	Director Camp Kooch-i-ching
Hopkins, Walt	U.S. Forest Service Washington 25, D.C.	Chief Branch of Forest Recreation Research U.S. Forest Service
Hutchins, Larry C.	2402 Stonewall Ct. Baltimore 28, Maryland	Associate Director Camp Arrowhead
Jensen, Barbara	Women's Gym, S.U.I. Iowa City, Iowa	Instructor, Dept. of Physical Education, Women University of Iowa

Name	Address	Position
Johnson, Arden	Field House Purdue University Lafayette, Indiana	Assistant Professor of Recreation Purdue University
Johnson, Lyle	YMCA, 30 S. 9th Street Minneapolis 2, Minnesota	Director YMCA Camp Ihduhapi
Lundegren, Herberta	101 White Hall, P.S.U. University Park, Penn.	Assistant Professor of Physical Education Pennsylvania State Univ.
McNeil, Elton	Dept. of Psychology University of Michigan Ann Arbor, Michigan	Associate Professor of Psychology Univ. of Michigan
Morash, Tal	The Camp Bureau 731 So. Hope St. Los Angeles 17, Calif.	Director Camp Bureau
Tully, Robert	Bradford Woods Martinsville, Indiana	Director Bradford Woods
van der Smissen, Betty	Women's Gym, S.U.I. Iowa City, Iowa	Associate Professor Dept. of Phy. Educ.,Women State University of Iowa
Weaver, Howard E.	203 Huff Gym University of Illinois Urbana, Illinois	Associate Professor of Recreation University of Illinois